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QUARTERLY REGISTER

AND

MAGAZINE.

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THE AMERICAN
QUARTERLY REGISTER
AND MAGAZINE.

NO. I.

MAY, 1848.

TO THE PUBLIC.

It was, many years since, said of the American people by the celebrated Edmund Burke, that they were "not yet hardened into the bone of manhood." And now, at this period of our existence, we may remark, that though the steady and rapid growth and improvement of our population—the spread of knowledge—the increasing demand for facts rather than theories—are hopeful evidences of an approximation to manhood, yet, we have lost nothing of the enthusiasm, the boldness and the enterprise of youth. Nothing is too difficult for the genius and activity of our citizens—every part of the civilized world bears testimony to their achievements in science and art. All is progress—steady, sure progress—yet bearing with it at every step, the characteristics of youth. It is true, that in our country, plans for the improvement and elevation of man meet with no obstruction, that errors derive no veneration from antiquity, and prejudice but little authority from custom; nevertheless, fancy is too frequently substituted for truth, visionary doctrines and crude speculations attract too much attention and admiration, and we need, as a people, the requisite patience to sift out and embody facts, to note down and register the evidences of daily experience.

It therefore follows that those who minister to the public taste too often choose brilliant and captivating novelties, rather than sober realities; and even the more substantial and necessary viands are sometimes garnished until their identity is lost.

That the press should have partaken of the character of everything else that pertains to a youthful people is not surprising, and consequently it has been charged against us, that our literature is wanting in sterling and solid qualities—that our periodicals are rather devoted to light and sparkling articles, than to

those which are truthful and of permanent value, and that generally the publications from our press are intended more for present effect, than for instruction and future use.

That we have given occasion for this censure is undoubtedly true, and yet there is much that is redeeming in the character of the people and the press. There is, as we have already stated, an increasing appetite for useful information—the spirit of inquiry is more directed to the diligent and patient investigation of truth, and the simple and severe pathway of fact is gaining more favor with an intelligent community.

We have therefore become convinced that the time is propitious for combining a grave, severe, and matter-of-fact journal, with an instructive and entertaining miscellany, and have ventured to commit on trial to a discerning public the first number of the *THE AMERICAN QUARTERLY REGISTER AND MAGAZINE*.

The plan of our work is very comprehensive, and is intended to supply the deficiency we have adverted to, and now sensibly felt and complained of in this country.

We embody within it, a digested summary of all the events that belong to the history of the times, with the documentary proof; a department of statistics embracing tabular statements, and the facts that make up the sum of practical knowledge; biographical notices; original articles, and a miscellany, scientific and literary. By this arrangement, we hope, in the course of the year, to present to our readers a mass of valuable and interesting intelligence, and to form a Register and Magazine in the true sense of the terms.

To the preparation of the work, and in securing for it the necessary patronage, many months of incessant labor have been devoted. Much research and assiduous application were required in collecting and digesting those parts where perfect accuracy is indispensable.

The Historical Register and review of the two preceding years has been carefully prepared, and is placed at the beginning, as an appropriate introduction to the contemplated series of annals. In it, we have not deemed it necessary, neither would our space have permitted, to state events with the minuteness that will be observed in each Register of the current quarter; but it sufficiently presents the leading events of the past, for all the purposes of explanation of the future.

The Quarterly Chronicle or record of the events for the present number we have compiled more in detail, and have made arrangements, whereby in future numbers we shall be enabled to give full, interesting and accurate particulars from every quarter of the globe. Public documents are given at length as a portion of the national history, and as unavoidably forming a component part of an American Register.

We have scrupulously endeavored to avoid the imputation of party bias, it being our aim to maintain a rigid impartiality in reference to the great political questions which agitate the nation, so that our pages may hereafter be referred to with implicit confidence. Our design is to furnish to all parties a faithful record—a reliable authority. We are aware, that even the truth may be at

times unpalatable, and thus subject us to the charge of bias ; but we hope to be judged by the general scope and character of the work. Our main business is with facts, and however offensive or distasteful they may sometimes be during the heat of party strife, they must, as long as there is virtue in the people, form now and hereafter the chief value of our work.

In the statistical department we have given much that will interest and prove useful for reference. It is not to be expected that in the first number we should be as successful in this branch of the work, as we shall be when our correspondence is enlarged by the circulation of a number, and we shall thereby have more ready access to the most authentic sources of information, neither is it our purpose to embody in a single number statistical statements relating to every branch of human knowledge. We pledge ourselves, however, to accomplish this within the year, and to give to all a storehouse of facts, that will be satisfactory to every class of readers.

The original articles and miscellaneous selections must be judged of by their merits.

Though we aim at that which is useful and instructive, rather than at what is brilliant, still we shall endeavor, so to prepare and select the matter of the Magazine, that we may promote the cultivation of a refined taste and please the highest order of intellect. We have already said that we stand aloof from the strife of political party ; we shall also avoid interference in sectarian controversy of any kind. Our object is to present an accurate delineation of the times in which we live—to withhold nothing that ought to be known and preserved, and that will contribute to the exhibition of a living and faithful picture. In doing this, we shall ever delight to place in the foreground whatever will promote the cause of true religion, sound morals, and pure patriotism—whatever will aid the honest inquirer after truth, in every department of science and art.

It will be seen that our miscellany does not entirely reject all the materials which are classed as imaginative and amusing. Poetry and miscellaneous prose, which combine instruction with entertainment, will, within proper limits, be admitted ; but we shall never allow them to interfere with the main design of the work. We shall sedulously avoid inflicting love tales, crude essays and common-place truisms upon our readers.

The biographical notices of the present number are not as full as we desire to have them—but we have in preparation for our next issue an obituary list after the manner of some foreign magazines, which will contain sketches of all the prominent men in our own country and the world, recently deceased ; and will be regularly continued in all future numbers.

We make no parade of the names of our contributors. We have assurances of voluntary aid from some of the most eminent men of the country, and shall be grateful for their favors ; but to avoid the unpleasant consequences of failures and disappointments, we have succeeded in enlisting, for a proper equivalent, the services of able associates, by whose labors, and by our own untiring industry and care, we hope to carry out successfully the plan of our work.

HISTORICAL REVIEW

AND REGISTER FOR 1846 AND 1847.

A part of the plan of this journal, and as we think, not the least valuable part, is to present our readers with a summary of all great events, political or physical, as they occur in every quarter of our many-peopled globe—noticing those most fully that most nearly concern ourselves, but not overlooking any that materially affect large portions of our species, however remote from us. Such a review must, in general, be a record of national calamity, of wars and insurrections, of death or disease, of destructive fires or earthquakes; for such are the chief materials of history. The great mass of individual enjoyment is at once too familiar to attract notice, and too minute to be recorded. It is found in the quiet and comfort and security of the domestic hearth; in the pure and lively endearments of family affection; in the interchange of kind offices in that home which is the favorite domain of human benevolence. These perennial sources of man's earthly joys, which make up the happiness of most men and of all women, are not regarded except by those who are immediate parties to them, no more than are the moments of sunshine and fair weather, whilst the great afflictions of human life, like the tempests of the physical world, are alone noticed and remembered. But in addition to these sources of human suffering, we shall, wherever we can, mark the progress of civil society.

We purpose in the present number to take a brief retrospect of the principal events of the world in the last two years, after which we shall notice them in each quarterly number as they occur; and, taking them in the order of their interest to us, we will commence with the

UNITED STATES.

The beginning of the year 1846 found us involved in a dispute with Great Britain about the Oregon territory, of a very threatening aspect, as both nations claimed the country extending more than 500 miles north of the Columbia river to the Russian boundary of 54° 40', and the organs of each government so expressed their opinions of their respective claims as to give to the friends of peace in both hemispheres lively apprehensions. Better counsels, however, prevailed. Thanks to the American Senate, in which portions of both the great political parties made a conservative majority, the government of the United States, which had previously rejected all the offers

by the British government of an amicable adjustment, receded from this high ground, and a treaty of compromise was made at Washington by Mr. Buchanan, the Secretary of State, and Mr. Packenham, the British Minister. It was ratified by the senate on the 18th of June, by a vote of 41 to 16, and thus was settled the second of the four* great subjects of controversy between this country and Great Britain, which for thirty years had been regarded with anxious interest by reflecting statesmen.

Our disputes with Mexico were destined to have a very different kind of settlement. Originating in those collisions which are ever likely to take place between border nations, they seemed after a tardy negotiation, about to be adjusted by a convention in January 1843, but they were revived and greatly aggravated by the annexation of Texas to the United States in March 1845. As the Mexican government had not recognized the independence of Texas, which she still regarded as a revolted province, and threatened by renewed hostilities to subdue, it was apprehended that the annexation might be deemed a just cause of war against the United States, and should the fears or prudence of Mexico prevent her from appealing to this last resort of nations, it was foreseen that the question of the boundaries of Texas, in which there seemed to be much uncertainty, and which were vehemently contested by Mexico and Texas, might also lead to war. Neither Mexico nor the United States appeared to shrink from this issue; on the contrary, troops were ordered by both governments to march to the frontier, for the avowed purpose of defending the territory they respectively claimed. Yet as a portion of that territory, the tract lying between the river Nueces and the Rio Grande, or del Norte, was claimed by both nations, nothing less than a forbearance to set foot on the disputed territory could prevent collision between the two armies; and such forbearance was the more difficult, as a portion of the disputed territory was then actually in the occupation of the citizens of Mexico. In the instructions of July 1845, to General Taylor, then at the head of about 3000 men, the secretary of war thus endeavored to compromise between respect for the rights of Mexico and a determination to assert those of the United States:—"The Rio Grande is claimed to be the boundary between the two countries, and up to this boundary you are to extend your protection, only excepting any posts on the eastern side thereof, which are in the actual occupancy of Mexican forces, or Mexican settlements, over which the Republic of Texas did not

* These were the Maine boundary; the right to the Oregon Territory; the regulation of the West India trade, of which we had been deprived of our just share by the British understanding of the arrangement negotiated by Mr. M'Lane and Lord Aberdeen, and by the subject of impressment. The claim of a right to visit American ships in time of peace was more recent.

exercise jurisdiction at the time of annexation, or shortly before that event. It is expected that, in selecting the establishment for your troops, you will approach as near the boundary line, the Rio Grande, as prudence will dictate; with this view the President desires that your position, for part of your forces at least, should be west of the Nueces."

Under these and subsequent instructions, General Taylor marched to the left or northwestern bank of the Rio Grande, and on the 28th of March, 1846, he was opposite to the Mexican town of Matamoras. This state of things could not last, and a meeting between a detachment of American cavalry and a party of Mexicans brought about the result which every one expected. This skirmish, in which the Americans were overpowered by numbers, was soon followed by the capture of a reconnoitering party of 60 men, under Captain Thornton, which at once irritated the Americans and inspired the Mexicans with overweening confidence; and the sudden march of General Taylor to Port Isabel, the chief depository of his military stores, was regarded by the Mexicans as an ignominious retreat. Having reinforced Point Isabel, in returning to his camp, opposite Matamoras, he met the main Mexican force, advantageously posted at Palo Alto, and near thrice as numerous as his own. After an engagement from two o'clock in the afternoon till night, the Mexicans were driven from the field with the loss of 600 men in killed and wounded. The skill and celerity of the American artillery probably decided the fortunes of the day, but with the loss of its accomplished leader, Major Ringgold. The killed and wounded in the American army were 53.

On the following day, May 9th, when within four miles of the Rio Grande, General Taylor again encountered the Mexicans strongly posted at the pass of Resaca de Palma, and was again victorious. The Mexicans left 200 men on the field, lost eight pieces of artillery, much valuable baggage, and some prisoners. Next to the coolness and firmness of the commanding-general, the individual efforts of Captains May and Duncan and Lieutenant Ridgely mainly contributed to the success of the American arms. Of the 1700 men engaged, the Americans lost in killed and wounded 105. About ten days afterwards Matamoras, containing from five to six thousand inhabitants, surrendered to the United States.

Soon after these events, General Taylor was joined by several regiments of volunteers from the neighboring states, agreeably to the requisition he had made when he found that the Mexican force in the field greatly exceeded the estimate made of them both by himself and at Washington. The error on this subject was so great and so long continued as to make it probable that it was brought about by the artifices of the enemy. Thus strongly reinforced, the

general thought it better to advance into the interior than to remain at Matamoras in an inactivity which would at once encourage the Mexicans and be in many ways injurious to his own army. He accordingly left Matamoras on the 5th of August with about 6000 men, and, marching westward by Camargo, he on the 19th of September reached Monterey, the seat of a bishop and capital of New Leon. The Mexicans seem not to have doubted that the city was capable of effectual resistance, as it possessed nine different fortifications, and was defended by a force greatly superior to that of its assailants. General Taylor assigned to General Worth the storming of the Bishop's Palace, the strongest fortification of the place, and reserved to himself the general attack on the city. The confidence of the besieged was so far justified by the event, that it was only after a severe contest of three days that the city surrendered. The loss of the Americans was very great. In the first day's attack it was 394 in killed and wounded. The terms were unusually favorable to the vanquished. General Taylor, in his despatches to the government, justifies this liberality on the grounds of the gallant defence made by the garrison, and the prospect of peace afforded by the recent restoration of Santa Anna to power. This consideration led him to consent to a conditional armistice of eight weeks.

This Mexican chief, who has so often been suddenly raised to supreme power and as suddenly lost it, having learnt, while in a state of exile at Havana, that the ruling faction in Mexico was favorable to his reinstatement in the presidency, contrived to impress the American government with the belief that he could and would effect a peace between the countries. Being accordingly permitted to pass the American squadron, then blockading Vera Cruz, unmolested, he proceeded without delay to Mexico, where he had been previously declared commander-in-chief, with the powers of dictator.

The armistice not receiving the sanction of the American government, General Taylor prepared for a renewal of hostilities, and proceeded south towards Saltillo, then in the possession of a part of his army, but threatened by Santa Anna. While on this march, he was ordered by the War Department to detach a part of his force to General Scott, then preparing for an attack on Vera Cruz. With this reduction of strength, he thought it prudent to return to Monterey, but being again reinforced by volunteers, he renewed his march to the south with something upwards of 5000 men; and on the 20th of February he reached Agua Nueva, but there learning that Santa Anna was approaching at the head of 20,000 men, he retreated to Buena Vista, a few-miles south of Saltillo, where he thought he could more safely encounter a force so greatly superior to his own.

On Santa Anna's arrival at Buena Vista, his first step, after repelling a small body of cavalry, was a summons to General Taylor to surrender, stating his army to amount to 20,000, and urging the futility of resistance with such disparity of force. The offer was firmly but modestly declined. The action commenced on the afternoon of the 22d of February, was renewed the next morning, and after a furious and bloody contest of ten hours, in which either party had several times the prospect of victory, night put an end to the conflict. Both parties claimed the honors of the day. Yet with little show of reason, for besides that the Mexican force was more than three times that of the American, Santa Anna drew off his forces in the night, leaving his wounded on the ground, on the plea of a want of provisions. In the battle of Buena Vista, the number of American officers killed and wounded was 65, and the whole number about 700. The Mexican loss in killed, wounded and prisoners, was supposed to exceed 4,000. Thus had General Taylor thrice been victorious in pitched battle, when, from the immense superiority of numbers on the part of his enemy, and twice in the advantage of position, defeat would have been no disgrace. But his brief career of glory was here arrested. The councils at Washington thought it better to attack Mexico from another point, and a brother soldier was destined to divide with him the honor of triumph over the Mexican arms.

It being decided by the American government that the chief theatre of military operations should be transferred to the Mexican Gulf, and the city of Mexico be approached in that direction, General Scott, to whom the execution of this plan of operations was confided, reached the Rio Grande on the 1st of January, 1847, and early in March he was before Vera Cruz with about 12,000 men. After a severe bombardment of four days, both the city and the Castle of San Juan de Ulua, deemed the strongest fortress in North America, capitulated on the 29th March. The eclat of this conquest, the difficulties of which had been very highly estimated, filled the nation with a tumultuous exultation, and for a time dimmed the lustre of General Taylor's victories.

On the 8th of April, General Scott set out on his march to Mexico, and on the 17th he came up with Santa Anna at the head of 14,000 men, advantageously posted at a mountain pass called Sierra Gordo, about 50 miles from Vera Cruz. The next day, the Americans attacked the enemy in columns, and obtained a decisive victory, with the loss of 431 men in killed and wounded. They captured 3,000 prisoners, including four generals and a large amount of arms and stores. On the 19th, the city of Jalapa was captured by General Twiggs, and on the 22d, the town of Perote by General Worth; and lastly, Puebla, the second city of Mexico in population

and wealth, all of which were well stored with arms and ammunition. Remaining in the neighborhood some time waiting for reinforcements, it was the 8th of August before General Scott resumed his march towards the capital. It was known that Santa Anna would endeavor to arrest his course at some of the difficult passes it was necessary for him to cross, but the General and his army marched on in the full confidence of victory, founded on past success. Taking an unfrequented road, his difficulties of approach were lessened, though they were still very great. On the 19th of August they attacked the enemy at Contreros, and on the following day at Cherubusco. On both days the Mexicans were routed with great slaughter. An armistice was proposed by Santa Anna, and acceded to by Scott, but finding that it was used not for the alleged purpose of furthering the negotiations for peace, but merely to make preparations to continue the war, the American general gave notice that the truce was at an end, and on the 7th of September hostilities recommenced. On the next day was fought the battle of *El Molino del Rey*, in which 3,000 Americans encountered and put to rout 14,000 Mexicans, with the loss, however, of 789 men—more than one-fourth of their number. On the 12th, the strong fortress on Mount Chapultepec, but a mile and a half from the city, was stormed, with great slaughter on both sides. On the following day two columns of the American troops entered the city, and on the 14th General Scott, with the rest of the army, took possession without opposition, except a brief one from the mob, and the American flag was soon seen to wave over the walls of the palace.

Thus fell the ancient metropolis of Mexico, which fifty years ago had no equal in numbers or wealth on the American continent, and which is still associated in our minds with the stern valor of Cortes, and the sad fate of the feeble-minded Montezuma. Of the Mexican army, under Santa Anna, which at first exceeded 30,000 men, they had lost in killed and wounded more than 7000, besides 3730 prisoners, including 13 generals, 75 pieces of ordnance, 20,000 small arms, and an immense amount of military stores. The loss sustained by General Scott's army from the battle of Contreros to the capture of Mexico, was, according to the official returns, in killed and wounded, 2703 men, including 383 officers.

Santa Anna had withdrawn from the city on the night of the 13th, and the next day, in a proclamation, he announced his resignation of the office of President. He was not without hopes of raising another army, more competent to cope with his victorious enemies, but losing, in his unvarying ill fortune, the confidence and favor of his countrymen, his efforts were unavailing; and since an attack on a large baggage train on its way to the city under General Lane, in which he failed and was beaten, he has never been engaged in any measures of offence or resistance.

Among the memorable deeds in this war, we ought not to pre-omit Colonel Child's successful defence of Puebla. With a force of only 247 effective men—the rest of the garrison being in the hospital—he resisted a close siege of 28 days by 8000 men under Santa Anna.

It should here be mentioned that the American government, finding that the war, which had so far been one uninterrupted series of victories, and the cost of which had been defrayed by the large importations of specie from Europe for flour and grain, was likely to be seriously felt by the American people, endeavored to profit by the successes of the invading armies to obtain an advantageous peace. They accordingly sent a confidential agent, Mr. Trist, the chief clerk in the State Department, to endeavor to effect a peace, and the three millions, which had been put at the disposal of the President, were made subject to his order. He reached the American camp a short time before the armistice. This course excited general surprise for its singularity, and gave rise to no little party animadversion; but, in the desirableness of the end, the means were forgiven by the nation.

Let us now pause at this stage of the war, and advert to some detached military operations of our countrymen, yet more greedy of adventure than of gain. In August, 1846, General Kearney, with a force of 1600 men, took possession of Santa Fé, appointed a governor, and declared New Mexico a part of the United States. Monterey, the capital of Upper California, being about the same time taken possession of by Commodore Sloat, that country was also declared a part of the United States. A detachment of the troops raised by General Kearney, consisting of about 800 men, commanded by Colonel Doniphan, left Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri, in June, 1846, and marching west through the State of Iowa and the Indian country adjoining, they entered New Mexico, passed through Santa Fé, thence followed the course of the Rio Grande, which they crossed at Passo del Norte, traversed the Mexican provinces of Chihuahua, Durango, Coahuila, until they reached Saltillo, from whence they again marched to the Rio Grande, which they followed to Brasos St. Jago, at its mouth. In this remarkable march of more than 3,000 miles in less than twelve months, they twice encountered the enemy in superior force, and twice were victorious. In the first skirmish, at Bracito, they had seven men slightly wounded, while the Mexicans had 30 killed and eight prisoners. In the battle of Sacramento, the Mexicans are stated to have lost 1,100 men of the 3,000 engaged. Doniphan's loss was inconsiderable.

After the resignation of Santa Anna, Ex-President Paredes, who had recently contrived to return to his country from Europe, through

Vera Cruz, made some efforts to rouse his countrymen to a more effectual resistance, but they proving unavailing, he remained an inactive spectator of what was passing.

While the conquest of the capital of Mexico and the stronghold of its defenders was very flattering to the pride of the Americans, it disappointed their hopes. The people of most of the other confederated States, judging by the solemn declarations of their local authorities, were not a whit more disposed to give up any important portion of their territory. At a conference between Mr. Trist and the Mexican commissioners, the latter indeed appeared willing to cede the immense but unprofitable province of Upper California, on receiving from the United States more money than it was worth; but these terms were so far short of those insisted on by the American government as to preclude all hope of an early settlement of the contest. To render the Mexicans the more desirous of peace, by making them more feel the pressure of war, it was decided to levy a contribution of three millions on the several Mexican provinces. General Scott accordingly issued a proclamation which assigned to each State its respective portion of the contribution, as if the whole country was subjugated. In the meantime, the ruling party in the United States seemed disposed to rise in their demands against Mexico for indemnity, and many were now found to consider the annexation of all Mexico, which at first no one had dreamt of, as both practicable and desirable, when in February of the present year the project of a treaty was agreed on by the party then exercising the civil authority in Mexico and Mr. Trist, though he had been previously recalled, and his powers to treat had been considered as revoked.

By the terms of this compact Mexico agreed to make the Rio Grande the boundary line between the two countries, until it reached New Mexico, the whole of which, together with Upper or New California, it ceded to the United States, who were to pay to Mexico \$15,000,000, and satisfy all claims of their citizens against Mexico, amounting to some \$3,000,000 more. The country ceded is estimated to contain upwards of 500,000 square miles, being about two-fifths the area of the Mexican territory; and though the chief part, Upper California, is at present valuable only for its harbors on the Pacific, and is in the possession of aboriginal Indian tribes, it will one day support an immense population.

While the party in opposition to the government are opposed to the incorporation of any portion of the Mexican people with the United States, they are still more opposed to the war, and a majority of that party in the Senate have voted with a majority of the administration party for the treaty, with some amendments of minor importance, and it wants only the sanction of the Mexican Congress

for its final ratification. They have done so in their great anxiety for peace, especially as they dread the growing disposition manifested by the people to endure the prolongation of the war with a view to the acquisition of all Mexico; a result which may require a far longer time and heavier burdens than the advocates for the scheme of conquest anticipate, and which, if effected, may lead to political consequences and changes which no human foresight can scan.

Among the memorable events of this war, not one of the least remarkable is that the two generals, whose unvarying success, under whatsoever disadvantage, have reflected so much credit on their talents, prudence and firmness, and who have won for themselves the unbounded admiration and gratitude of their countrymen, have been not supposed to possess the favor and confidence of the administration, and that these unfriendly sentiments first caused General Taylor's victorious career to be suddenly arrested; and subsequently General Scott's reputation to be thrown into the shade, first by withholding from him a share in the negotiation confided to Mr. Trist, and then by subjecting him to a court of inquiry without waiting for the termination of hostilities: Such a course towards a commander-in-chief, in the midst of the public rejoicings for his victories, for alleged impropriety of language towards an inferior officer, has excited no small surprise by its novelty; and its consequences with the accused and his accusers, both with the army and the people, remain to be seen.

Though this war will have probably cost the nation upwards of an hundred millions of dollars; though it has deprived us of some of our most meritorious citizens; and though, as a precedent, it has been said to have impaired one of the safeguards of the constitution, inasmuch as Congress may be thought rather to have given its subsequent sanction to it than to have originated it, yet it has, on the other hand, furnished more than one ground of congratulation to the American patriot. Independently of the accession of territory, no longer doubtful, of which different portions of our citizens make very different estimates, the energy, skill, and coolness of our officers, as well as the bravery and self-devotion of the men, most of them never before in battle, have rarely been equalled. We have also learnt that our means of natural defence are not the less certain and efficient from the difficulty of enlisting men for a regular army, since much of the glory we have acquired in the field has been achieved by volunteers, who, at the first summons from the government, left their happy homes to rally round the standards of their country, and who have fought with the cool and persevering valor of disciplined veterans.

Among other consequences of the war we must admit that it has dispelled an illusion once very prevalent in this country. It was

formerly insisted among the advantages of republican governments that they were particularly favorable to peace—nay, that if all governments were of that description, there would be an end of warfare, and that wars of *conquest* were incompatible with the first principles of popular governments. Yet we have found that of all our citizens, those most democratic have not been the most unwilling to conquer territory from the enemy, and some have even wished to make the hazardous experiment of subjugating the whole of Mexico and her eight millions of people. Since experience has thus corrected this error of our self-complacency, and our statesmen see that the love of power and aggrandizement is as natural to a people as to princes, and it is quite as strong, let us hope that they will more sedulously guard against calling these sentiments into action—sentiments which in their effects may either adulterate our population by a commixture with a debased and mongrel race, or by creating a numerous class of prætors and distant agents, carry bribery and corruption into every corner of the nation.

The commerce of the United States was unusually prosperous both in 1846 and 1847. The general failure in Europe of the potato crop in both years, and of the crops of corn in 1847, furnished a foreign demand, at liberal prices, for all the grain we could spare. Our exports of flour and grain, which were ordinarily under ten millions in the preceding year, now exceeded forty millions. Our imports of merchandize not immediately experiencing a correspondent increase, and the war occasioning a perpetual drain of coin to Mexico, the excess in value of our exports was paid in the precious metals, of which so large an amount had never before been brought into the country. A part of this amount was indeed received by the banks, but those institutions, aware that these *golden* days could not long continue, profited by experience, and but moderately increased their issues, so that there was no redundancy, and consequently no depreciation, of the currency consequent on the general prosperity of our farmers, merchants, and ship-owners.

In the year 1846, the tariff of 1842 underwent a considerable change, chiefly by a reduction of the duties laid for protection. The effect was immediately felt by some portion of the cotton and woollen manufacturers, but for some time not at all by the makers of domestic iron, in consequence of the price in England being kept up by the extraordinary demand for railways. That cause, however, having ceased, the reduced price of English iron has caused some of the iron works to stop, and the profits of all have been greatly diminished. It is still a mooted question between the respective advocates of free trade and of protection, whether the community gains or loses by the change. Though the whole amount of gains by the consumers of iron from the reduction of

price may exceed the amount of loss to the producers, yet the latter falling exclusively on a few individuals and particular districts, excites loud complaints with those who feel it, and calls forth the sympathies of the public. It is also insisted that it causes a great waste of the national capital, to prevent which, the father of the doctrines of free trade, Adam Smith, admits, by way of exception, that such changes should be made "slowly, gradually, and after a very long warning."

It gives us pleasure to record among the memorable events of the year, the liberal contributions of the people of the United States to the relief of the suffering poor in Ireland. Donations, amounting to above a million and a half of dollars, were remitted in money, or in cargoes of flour and Indian corn. Every part of the country united in this deed of charity. It is no less gratifying to add that, in 1846, Pennsylvania wiped out the reproach of repudiating her debt, which had indeed been unjustly cast upon her, because she had, in payment of the interest, temporarily substituted her cash bonds bearing interest. The few other States which were unable to meet their improvident engagements, are preparing to follow her example. The dearth in Europe more than doubled the average immigration to this country, and the tide thus swelled seems not since to have abated. It is probable that the population of the United States, at the next census, will have been augmented by emigrants from Europe more than a million and a half.

Among the improvements in our social condition, in the last two years, we may mention the great increase of railroads; the rapid extension of telegraphs; the essay to share in the navigation by ocean steamers, of which Great Britain previously had the monopoly; and, lastly, the use of ether and similar gases for the suspension of bodily pain in surgical operations. The United States claim the honor of introducing this new agent in medicine, and though some of the faculty entertain strong objections to it, as producing pernicious influences on the system that compensate or more than compensate for its beneficial effects; and that it sometimes endangers life itself; yet a large majority of the profession disregard the speculative part of these objections; and, notwithstanding its occasional failures, consider it, as an alleviator of human suffering, one of the greatest discoveries of the age.

SOUTH AMERICA.

With the exception of the war between the United States and Mexico, the whole American continent, in both hemispheres, for the last two years, has been in a state of almost general repose.*

* In the Quarterly Chronicle will be found an account of the disturbances in Venezuela during the present year.

The only other case of war has been the contest between General Rosas, the Dictator of Buenos Ayres, and the Republic of Monte Video, which has existed for several years. Notwithstanding the active intervention of England, and France, and Brazil, and the destruction by the first two, in 1845, of the batteries Rosas had erected to close the navigation of the Parana, he has continued to lay close siege to Monte Video ever since, and, according to the latest accounts, the city must surrender to his superior force.

It would seem impossible that the Sixteen Republics, as they call themselves, which, during their short-lived confederation, constituted the Argentine Republic, can much longer continue distinct and independent sovereignties; as twelve of them are inferior in population to the state of Delaware, and one of them (Misiones) contains less than 10,000 inhabitants. Since, too, they seem incapable of forming and maintaining a federal government, it is likely that the weaker will fall a prey to the stronger, and thus a political union be brought about by violence. Though they are nominally republics, arbitrary power is exercised by the chief magistrate in all of them. A more unqualified despotism than that of Don Francia, in Paraguay, never existed. The population of all the sixteen states, on an area of perhaps 800,000 square miles, is supposed not much to exceed a million.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The year 1846 found Great Britain involved in a threatening dispute with the United States about the Oregon territory, and at war with the Sikhs, a people in Upper India, estimated at near 2,000,000, and inhabiting a country somewhat larger than the State of Maryland. The whole of India or Hindostan being parcelled out among numerous distinct sovereignties, were frequently, according to the common destiny of human society, at war with one another. England, or rather her merchant aristocracy, the East India Company, profiting by these dissensions, and now siding with one of the disputants, and now with another, gradually enlarged her power, until the whole of that vast region, of nearly twenty times her area, and containing two hundred millions of people, have been brought under her control, in the character of either subjects, tributaries, or obsequious allies. Now and then some of them endeavor to shake off the foreign yoke, and take up arms, but the difficulty of a concerted resistance by a sufficient number, and yet more, their inferiority in the art of war, have hitherto made these efforts unavailing; and thus it proved with the Sikhs. Though a brave and warlike people, and their first successes had filled England with alarm for the safety of her Indian empire, European science and tactics soon prevailed against their untutored valor and great

superiority of numbers, as it had done against the feeble and effeminate natives of Bengal. The war ended early in 1846, and the result of the struggle was, that the Sikhs were compelled to sue for peace, and to take a lower place in the scale of British dependents; the annual tribute to the victors was increased; and the British dominion was extended almost to the confines of Persia.

Though all England's foreign relations were then pacific, and her numerous colonies that encircle the globe were in a state of undisturbed repose, she herself was, as usual, the theatre of political controversy between the two great parties into which her people are divided, and whose struggles for the power and emoluments of office, keep the public mind in a state of ceaseless agitation.

Ever since the days of Adam Smith, all her political economists had maintained the benefits of free trade in promoting national wealth, and had assiduously recommended its adoption to other nations. But notwithstanding these doctrines, the land-owners, being predominant in the legislature, had, by way of securing to themselves or their tenants the monopoly of the home market, always subjected foreign corn to a duty, which, rising as the market price of corn fell, operated in ordinary years as a prohibition. The great mass of consumers had for years not only insisted that this policy was detrimental to the wealth of the nation, but they also labored to show, by ingenious reasoning, that it was not beneficial to the land-owners themselves. Their efforts were unavailing, and, at a general election in 1840, a liberal Whig ministry, who were converts to the doctrine of free trade, making a repeal of the corn-laws a test question, their opponents (the landed interest) succeeded in obtaining a majority; and the Whigs, of course, were compelled to surrender their places to their victorious adversaries.

The advocates of free trade, though defeated, were not disheartened, and they determined to assail the obnoxious corn-law in another way. Knowing that a considerable majority of the electors were, as mere consumers, interested in the free importation of foreign corn, and had voted against their own interests from sheer ignorance, they determined to enlighten the public mind on this subject. By way of securing unity of action, as well as perseverance, they organized an association, called the *Corn-law League*, of which they appointed several standing committees, each with separate duties assigned to it; raised money by subscription, which finally amounted to a million of pounds sterling; and by means of public meetings, addresses, pamphlets, and the periodical press, brought the question before the people in every corner of the kingdom. It was a pregnant sign of the times that this great political movement had not, as heretofore, sought for leaders among the peerage, but was headed

altogether by commoners, of whom Mr. Cobden was the most prominent.

While this voluntary association, which has so often in modern times shown itself a powerful political lever, was gradually making converts, a disease among potatoes, which is the chief aliment of the Irish peasantry, and feeds no small number in Scotland and England, made large importations of grain necessary. The arguments of the Corn Law League could no longer be resisted, and Sir Robert Peel himself, yielding, as on former occasions, to a current that he could not stop or resist, proposed a repeal of the corn laws, to take place after two years. But many of his party resenting this desertion of a policy which not only touched their interests, but was associated in their minds with party triumphs, withdrew their support, and after an unsuccessful attempt to form a Whig ministry, one was finally formed in June, 1846, under Lord John Russel, the most zealous and uniform of the aristocracy in advocating the doctrines of free trade.

But if the bad harvest had contributed to the repeal of the corn laws, it also disappointed the hopes of those who had wished that repeal. In 1847, the potato rot still continued, and there was a short crop of corn, both in England and in almost every part of Europe. Its price, consequently, which the removal of the duties had been expected to reduce, rose nearly to more than double of that it commonly bore. Nor did the evil stop here. The large quantity of grain which England, and yet more Ireland required, swelled the importations so much beyond their ordinary amount, that the export of specie became necessary to pay for the excess; and the banks not being able under their last charter to supply the deficiency of currency, as formerly, by a further issue of notes, that deficiency was felt everywhere, and produced extraordinary commercial embarrassment. The Bank of England, no longer restricted by a usury law, received 8 per cent. on its loans, which were, moreover, far short of the demand; and the 3 per cent. stock of the public debt which had been above par, and once as high as 104, fell to 80. The consequence was, that all that class, which proved to be not a small one, who by delusive appearances of capital, had been trading and living on credit, became declared bankrupts; and the gambling spirit of speculation in grain, which the gains of the first dealers had produced, added a yet more numerous class to the first, after the price fell, as it suddenly did, by reason of a very promising harvest. Never had there been the same number of failures in Great Britain, or the same want of mercantile confidence. The new bank regulations, which some had questioned from the first, began to be generally disapproved, when it was found that while they guarded against the evils of an undue expansion, they had increased those

of an undue contraction; and parliament was called at an earlier day to release the bank from some of the restrictions of its charter. But, further exports of specie to pay for corn no longer being necessary, and the vast resources of the nation from her commerce, her manufactures, her immense capital, and her colonial monopoly, having soon supplied her with her usual quantity of specie, the temporary evils of a deficient circulation were forgotten, and the bank charter remained unchanged.

Supposing the corn laws not to be revived, what will be the effect of the abolition? It seems clear that the average price of grain in the United Kingdom will be less than heretofore, and will approach to that of other countries by the amount, or nearly the amount of the duty taken off. This must have the effect of throwing much of the poorer soils now producing corn out of cultivation, and convert them into pasture lands, when the amount of corn they furnished must thenceforth be supplied from abroad. In ordinary years, the supply will be obtained from Dantzic and Odessa, and a part, perhaps, from our western states, through Quebec. It is only, then, when the crop in England is a very short one, that a further aid will be required from the Atlantic States; so that they do not seem to be as materially affected by this change of policy in Great Britain as we had once fondly expected.

In the meantime the success of the Corn Law League, in influencing legislation, seems likely to induce other reformers to adopt the same course of voluntary co-operation, and bring it to bear on such parts of their polity as are injurious, or unpalatable to the majority of the people; in which case, it is for time to show whether these reforms can be safely and peaceably made, as were the Catholic Emancipation, the extension of the right of suffrage, and the repeal of the corn laws; or whether they will result in civil commotion. The ties which bind the different parts of the civil community together—the national debt; the wealth, political power, and *prestige* of the aristocracy, the influence of the established church, the respect for ancient custom, and the force of habit—all contribute to keep things as they are, and to reconcile the nation to temporizing changes, when change cannot be prevented; but, whether these sedatives can prevail against the agitations of those who are deprived of their share of political power, and whose wealth, intelligence, and influence are steadily increasing, remains to be seen.

The only open hostilities, besides the war with the Sikhs, in which Great Britain has been engaged within the last two years, was the war with the Kafirs, a rude tribe adjoining the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, and that with the natives of New Zealand, who had become jealous of the foreign intruders. But the fortified camp of the

latter having been captured in January, 1846, the refractory chiefs submitted, and quiet was restored to the colony. This island may prove a valuable possession to Great Britain, but the subjugation of its fierce inhabitants will probably be preceded by many such contests as have lately taken place. The Kafir war has lately terminated in submission to British authority.

While the adoption of the free trade policy in England produced disappointment in its results, it has yet more seriously affected her sugar colonies in the West Indies. It was confidently expected by the friends of emancipation that the work of the negroes, when free, would, on the common principles of human action, prove cheaper than it had been when they were slaves. It was not foreseen that, in very hot climates, the ordinary gains of labor often fail to compensate for its irksomeness; yet such has been the fact. The blacks, since they were free, in some of the colonies, particularly in Jamaica and Demarara, will not work over four or five days in the week, and but five or six hours in the day. To secure to the colonies the home market of Great Britain for their sugar, in return for her own monopoly of their trade, and in mitigation of the losses which the planters sustained from emancipation, a duty, amounting to prohibition, was laid on all foreign sugar imported into the United Kingdom. But with this protection, the consequence of the decrease in the amount of agricultural labor, and of the rise in its price was, that the estates everywhere greatly declined in value; the business of making sugar became so unprofitable that many abandoned it; and the quantity annually exported from the British West Indies fell from 114,000 hogsheads (the average of twenty years *before* the emancipation) to 42,443 hogsheads, (the average of five years *after* the emancipation.) The reduction in the quantity of coffee has been in the same proportion.

But after the repeal of the corn laws it was expected by the people of England, who were desirous of cheap sugar as well as cheap corn, that the protection which had been taken away from the British agriculturist should not be continued to the West India planters, and, accordingly, Lord John Russel, in 1846, proposed an immediate reduction of the duty on foreign sugar from sixty-three shillings the cwt. to twenty-one shillings; and, by further annual reductions in five years, to subject all sugars, wherever produced, to the same duty of fourteen shillings. This measure was vehemently opposed, on the ground that it would be ruinous to the planters, whose sugar could not be sold as cheaply as that which was produced by slaves, and that it would encourage the slave trade, which England had made such efforts to put down, by increasing the demand for the slave-grown sugar of Cuba and Brazil. The measure was, however, adopted, and its expected consequences have filled the West Indies with complaint and alarm.

The planters have endeavored to supply themselves with additional laborers by importing Portuguese from Madeira, and Coolies from India. But these efforts have proved failures. The apprentices from Sierra Leone, the cargoes of captured slave ships, have answered better (for their condition is probably only a mitigated form of slavery); but their number is too small to avail much, and the condition of these once flourishing colonies seems to require the wisest counsels, if they are to continue valuable appendages to the British empire. The privilege granted to the colonial legislatures, of doing away with the differential duties in favor of British manufactures, can give them but little relief. The greater cheapness of free over slave labor, which is still insisted upon, will still be found inapplicable here; for though man everywhere seeks what he deems the greatest good, yet the happiness of the tropical negro is less in the earnings of labor than in the enjoyment of indolence; and in that soil and climate the population are not goaded to work by the want of food, as in China. It would seem, then, that the government must either restore the protecting duties to the colonies, or supply them with more and cheaper labor, or see them rapidly decline as contributors of raw products to the mother country, and as consumers of her manufactures.

The condition of Ireland presents a subject of still greater anxiety and perplexity to the British statesmen. Many of her redundant population are in a state of destitution and beggary for want of employment, and not a few because they are not disposed to profit by that which is within their reach. The remote cause of their wretchedness is their want of the pride of independence, which favors improvidence in marriage, and indolence afterwards. The potato rot has but hastened the crisis of their sufferings, for increasing as their population is, an insufficiency of food must sooner or later have been felt. The evil, then, having its source in the character of the people, admits no remedy that is at once safe and immediate, and it is consequently to be feared that the adaptation of population to food will be brought about by those dire correctives of redundancy, starvation or disease. There surely can be no worthier object of British legislation than to devise a course which may eventually rescue this fine island and its warm-hearted people from their present political debasement, and the yet greater which awaits it; but it must be confessed that the means appear to be as difficult as the end is desirable.

FRANCE.

In her desire to obtain some of the advantages of colonies which England seemed to derive from them, France about seventeen years ago, undertook to subdue the piratical State of Algiers, and to con-

vert it into a populous and productive colony. Lying on the opposite shores of the Mediterranean, and less than 500 miles from Marseilles, the territory of Algiers is estimated at about 70,000 square miles, and the population at about 2,000,000. After an immense expenditure of money, and sacrifice of men, France succeeded in there organizing a colonial government; but though conquered, the spirit of many of the inhabitants was unsubdued, and under the lead of one of those daring and energetic chiefs that always rise up in defence of their country, when its independence is assailed, she seemed compelled to wage a war of extermination with the Arab tribes. But Abd-el-Kader, after many bloody, and some successful contests against the best troops of France, has finally been forced to yield to European tactics and discipline, and on the 23d of December last, surrendered himself to the Duke d'Aumale, on condition of his personal liberty. All further resistance is likely here to cease, and France will now seriously set about obtaining from her new colony some indemnity for the immense sums it has cost her. The press lately teemed with projects of introducing new articles of culture, suitable to the climate of Algiers, and to the wants of France; and though many of them will doubtless fail, some may succeed.

The same desire for colonies, on the part of France, has been indicated in Madagascar, not by acts of force, but the arts of diplomacy, as yet, however, without any success; and in the Pacific, by a seizure of the Marquesas Islands, and of the Island of Tahiti.

The King of France, who was early instructed in the school of adversity, and had acquired a knowledge of mankind by opportunities of personal observation, which those who are born sovereigns never can have, is a man of consummate prudence, and unwilling to expose his new dynasty to the hazardous contingencies of war, made it a paramount object of his policy to preserve the peace of Europe, which has now lasted, owing probably to his efforts, upwards of thirty-two years, yet, in spite of these efforts, the general tranquillity of Europe has been on more than one occasion seriously threatened by one of those portentous specks on the political horizon, which, gradually growing larger and darker, at last bursts into open war. Once by the double marriage of Queen Isabella of Spain with a cousin of the queen, a Spanish nobleman of the Bourbon family, and Louis Philippe's youngest son, the Duke of Montpensier, with the queen's sister, by which alliance, effected by French diplomacy, the King of France sought to strengthen the interests of his family. Lord Palmerston, in his instructions to the English minister at Paris, and which were communicated to M. Guizot, indicated the most earnest opposition of the British government to the projected alliance, maintained that it was contrary to the spirit of the treaty of Utrecht (in

1713), which guaranteed the separation of the crowns of France and Spain, charged the French government with having acted inconsistently with its professions to Great Britain; and without directly using the language of intimidation, he approached it in expressing the fervent hope, "that the proposed marriage would not take place." M. Guizot made a full reply to these instructions, in which, in a tone of temperate reasoning, he justified the course pursued by France. His letter was dated the 5th of October, 1846, and on the 10th the double marriage was solemnized. It was attended with no other consequence than a suspension of the amicable feelings which had previously existed between the French and English governments, and their respective nations, but which last seems to be already restored.

The peace of Europe appeared to be also in danger from the civil commotions in Europe, on account of the Jesuits, which will by and by be more fully noticed.

This cessation of national hostility between England and France has led to their joint intervention in the affairs of other states, for the avowed purpose of maintaining the balance of power. They thus showed a disposition to act together to prevent the annexation of Texas to the United States, but this course of policy of the French ministry against the old and natural allies of France, being unpopular in that country, and being, moreover, evidently unavailing, was soon abandoned. The two governments also concurred in opposing the attempts of Rosas, the Dictator of Buenos Ayres, against Paraguay. In their protests against the annexation of Cracow to Austria, although its independence had been guaranteed by all the five powers composing the Congress of Vienna, they acted separately, Lord Palmerston not inviting or waiting for the concurrence of France. They seem to co-operate in like manner, without consultation, in protecting Pope Pius from the powers of Austria, and in allaying the civil commotions of Switzerland.

France has been, ever since the peace in 1815, gradually undergoing the changes of which her revolution in 1789 was the indirect cause, and which may in time compensate for the torrents of blood caused by that revolution. The immediate agents of these changes were the great increase in the number of her landed proprietors, and her legislative assembly. The discussions which took place in this body, were steadily preparing the French nation, not only to take more interest in questions of public policy, but also to understand them; and although the number of electors to the popular branch was a very small proportion of the people, as prudence required it should first be, in the extreme political ignorance of that people, yet in the nature of things, that number would be increased, as those who were excluded became better

able to exercise the important franchise of choosing legislators. Their well-founded claims would be certain to meet with more and more favor and support, until they finally prevailed. Such has generally been the extension of the right of suffrage, as we have seen in these States, and such no doubt would have been the progress in France, if the slow process of reform had not, by an attempt of the government to arrest it, been converted into a revolution which, with a force as sudden as resistless, swept away the monarch and the monarchy, and gave to the people the whole political power of the State. This great event, pregnant with consequences beyond human foresight to scan, will be more particularly noticed in the history of the present year; but it will be here proper to mention what preceded it. Under the influence of the changes that have been adverted to, it has been apparent, for some years, that public sentiment in France and the policy of the government were in direct conflict; and that, while an increasing number of the people were not willing to stop at the political reforms aimed at by the revolution of 1830, the government was intent on arresting the spirit of reformation, and of providing the means of controlling the popular will.

It was confessedly the disaffected part of the nation which suggested the political banquets or dinners, that were becoming so common throughout France in 1847, and it probably sought to profit by the example of the corn law league in England. The administration, on the other hand, believing that the object of these meetings was to thwart the government, and perhaps to overturn it, determined to exert its power to prevent them. In taking this course, they seem, by the result, to have acted unwisely, but it must be recollected that, in the alternative which was presented to them of yielding to the popular claim or resisting, it sometimes happens that neither course is safe; but that in the wide difference between what one party thinks it has the right to demand, and the other thinks itself warranted in refusing, concession may, like fuel added to flame, give new aliment to farther exactions, and opposition to the popular will, like an attempt to dam the torrent, but make its power the more resistless. The popular irritation produced by the course pursued was indeed distinctly foreseen by the government, but it believed it had the means of quelling it by military force. Sovereigns, however, are to learn that an army is not now the blind machine it once was—that, at the present day, the feelings of the citizen mingle with those of the soldier, and sometimes even predominate. So it has proved in France. The main prop of power on which the King of the French relied has failed him, and this taken away, the fabric which he had with so much

real industry and such seeming skill, been rearing for seventeen years, tumbled to the ground.

M. Guizot, at the head of the late ministry, presents a rare example of one who had devoted the principal part of his life to literature and philosophy, discharging the practical duties of a statesman. He was thought to have acquitted himself with ability, and to have shown himself not wanting in that just judgment of men and things, which are essential to success in the real concerns of life. Swift, by way of showing that a man of genius is not unfit for business, used to say, that "a sprightly, generous horse could carry a pack as well as an ass." There is some truth as well as wit in the remark, but it must be confessed that a life of mere reflection and speculation, is most commonly a very insufficient preparation for practical duties. Of what avail are good precepts, if we are unskilful, or awkward, or unseasonable in applying them?

In the last year, France participated in the scarcity of grain that was caused by the short crop of 1846, though not so largely as England. The very numerous class of the French population, who are landholders, gave them resources which the same class in England did not possess.

It is still a mooted question in political economy, whether it is the wiser policy to multiply the number of landholders by subdividing real estate without limit, as is done in France, or to check such subdivisions by rights of primogeniture, and other policy of law, so as to secure the advantage of large farms, as is the case in England. Most English economists maintain that their system is best, because by means of large farms a country can obtain greater returns from the same expense of labor and capital, as it is only in this way that the benefit of the best distribution of labor, and of costly labor-saving machines can be obtained. On the other hand, it is insisted that where the lands of a country may be subdivided without restriction, and where, of course, the separate tracts are likely in time to become extremely small, they will be cultivated with the same care as a garden, and will be proportionately productive. Such a country will consequently be able to support a denser population by the products of its own soil, though it may have a smaller surplus of manufactures to exchange for the raw produce of other countries.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Spain, after much court intrigue and factious controversy, settled down in a state of quiet after her present queen was placed on the throne. That country which for three centuries her American colonies drained of her most enterprising inhabitants, and which substituted the wealth drawn from those colonies for that once pro-

duced by her industry and commerce, has now to rely upon her own native resources. These, indeed, are physically very great, and require nothing but energy and perseverance for their development. Though a large portion of its territory, traversed as it is by chains of mountains, is unfit for cultivation, yet the residue is remarkably fertile; and, with its genial climate, is capable of supporting a very dense population. It is particularly favorable to the production of wool, and thus has the material for the manufacture of cloth. It has good ports both on the Atlantic and Mediterranean; and may thus again have ships and commerce. It readily produces corn, wine, oil, fruits, and silk. It was once a great manufacturing country. It may still be so. Of her vast colonial possessions, on which it was her familiar boast that the sun never set,* she now retains only Cuba, Porto Rico, in the Western World, the Philippine Islands, Majorca and Minorca, the Canaries, the promontory opposite Gibraltar, and some other insignificant places on the Barbary coasts. Of these, Cuba, the principal, containing about a million of inhabitants, producing more sugar than all the British West Indies put together, presents a tempting object to the cupidity of other nations: but it may be long preserved to Spain by their mutual jealousy.

Portugal has for some time exhibited evidences of a feeble government and a discontented people. In the month of May, 1846, there was a popular insurrection in that kingdom, provoked by a new tax, and to appease the storm, the minister Castro Cabral was compelled to resign, and the cabinet which succeeded, under the Duke de Palmella, lasted but four months. For nearly two years a civil war has been carried on on a small scale between the opposers and the supporters of the government.

GERMANY.

In Germany there is still evidently a great fermentation of the public mind. The French Revolution has communicated to other parts of Europe that free spirit of speculation in government, religion, and morals, which had some time before existed in France, and to which the revolution gave new force. Nowhere is this spirit more manifest than in Germany, especially the Protestant portion of it. All the European sovereigns are sensible of the change, and the Prussian government, profiting by its knowledge of the fact, seems disposed to accommodate itself somewhat to the times, and by opportune concessions to the people, to give a safe direction to the ruling temper rather than to attempt to suppress it. After hesitat-

* In point of fact, this is still true, as either Spain, Cuba, or Manilla must always be in the illuminated half of the globe.

ing in this delicate, and probably reluctant operation of reform, it has lately yielded to its subjects its promised constitution. In the meantime it has taken the lead in the great commercial union of the Northern German States, for the avowed purpose of equalling custom-house duties among them, and of encouraging their own commerce and industry. It aims at once to give to the members of the association the benefits of free trade, in their own commercial intercourse, and to secure to them the benefits of protection, in their intercourse with other nations. It is supposed, with a great show of probability, that Prussia in joining this league—the *Zollverein*, has the further purpose of increasing her political influence, and thus strengthening herself against Austria, the neighbor she most dreads and dislikes.

That most powerful of the German States seems to be less affected by the spirit of reform than any part of Europe, and is perhaps the only one which has not given open evidence of its influence. The Court of Vienna still holds to its theory of despotic sway, though that sway, it must be confessed, is often moderate, and sometimes patriarchal in its exercise. The atrocities in Galicia, however, furnish a notable exception. It being known that in this, as well as every other part of the former kingdom of Poland, the nobles still aspire to restore the independence of their country, the Austrian government systematically set about exciting the jealousy of the serfs against the nobles, who were the principal land owners; and, by relieving the former from some of their customary services, and other arts, they but too well succeeded. When in the beginning of 1846, a revolution was attempted in Russian Poland, and its leaders had organized a central government in Cracow, the Austrian authorities in Galicia, fearing that this attempted revolution would not only be joined by the nobles, but that they and the peasants would be united by their patriotic sympathies, so managed, by flattering the peasants, and irritating them against the nobles, that they rose in masses, everywhere plundered and burnt the castles, and put their inhabitants to death, without distinction of age or sex. It is said that 1500 of the landed proprietors were the victims of popular fury. The only excuse offered for these butcheries is that the Austrian Governor at Tarnow, prompted more by fear than baseness, offered a reward for the head of every Polish noble brought to him. The serfs, believing they had now achieved their liberty, refused to submit to the orders of the government, and found, too late, that their servile condition remained unaltered, and that all they had effected by their barbarities was a change of masters. The attempted revolution, proclaimed at Cracow, being effectually crushed by Russia, the Austrian government then made a show of vindicat-

ing the violated laws, and subjected the blind instruments of its own jealous policy to military execution. Moreover, to punish Cracow, which had been the rallying point of the conspirators, it was formally annexed to the Austrian empire, though its independence had been expressly stipulated at the Congress of Vienna by Austria herself. The history of the popular insurrections in Galicia, with their causes and consequences, are not known in detail; but when they shall be faithfully recorded, they will make a black page in Austrian history.

Of her thirty-five millions of subjects, composed of various nations and races, Teutonic, Slavonian, Romanic, the Italian portion, amounting to five millions, are probably held by the weakest and most precarious ties. Time seems not the least to have abated the cordial hatred felt by the Italians for Austrians and their government ever since they have been under its dominion, and they will seize the first opportunity of severing the cords that politically bind them together. Austria is sensible of this, and views with jealousy every popular movement in neighboring nations, and even all attempts at political reform. It is, therefore, that she has found the liberal course pursued by the present Pope distasteful, and has directly interfered to arrest it: The Whig ministry of England, faithful to the principles they profess, have also interfered, and have plainly intimated to the Austrian government that any act of hostility towards the States of the Church would be regarded by Great Britain as a declaration of war.

RUSSIA.

Russia still continues steadily to increase in numbers, and to advance in commerce, manufactures and civilization. Her population, which about ten years ago exceeded sixty millions, is probably now nothing short of seventy millions, and though greatly diversified in habits and character, and somewhat in race, they are gradually acquiring that homogeneousness which time and identity of government rarely fail to produce. Her mines in the Ural Mountains of the precious metals, especially of gold, have of late exceeded in fertility the richest on this continent. Should they continue to be equally productive, the value of those metals must fall, at least in Russia, where it has been very high; and, consequently, the money price of her products must rise. This process is known to have great influence in quickening industry and trade, and the day is probably not far distant when her colossal power can no longer be effectually resisted by Turkey, and she will realize her long-cherished visions of possessing Constantinople; which seems, beyond all other spots on the globe, fitted to be the centre of the widest circle of commerce and political power. Such appears to be the splendid

destiny that awaits her, if her vast domain continues one integral empire. To give further assurance for this result, and perhaps to lay the foundation for further aggrandizement, the present czar is making efforts to bring about a moral union of all the Slavonian nations, whether subjects of Austria, Turkey, or Russia, and amounting in all to upwards of 80 millions. This project, which has obtained the name of *Panslavism*, is also favored by many of the Poles and other liberals, with very different hopes and purposes. But there are no indications at present that either party is likely to effect much. Identity of race seems to be too weak a tie to bind together nations so separated by distance, long subjected to different governments, and widely differing even in language. The czar is also laboring assiduously to eradicate all feelings of nationality with the Poles, and in that he may be more successful. All the acts of Russia indicate both the energy which is natural to a young and growing nation, and that which springs from a unity of will. In the projected revolution in 1846, she was acquainted with the earliest movements of the Poles, when they were unsuspected in Austria, and, waiting until the plot was mature, the Russian government, with characteristic vigor and cruelty, subjected every Pole found in arms to military execution. The Circassians, with the bravery and means of defence which belong to mountaineers, have for years bid defiance to her power; but from late accounts there is reason to fear that these noble defenders of their country will be overpowered at last; and the Caucasian mountains no longer present an impediment to the further advance of Russian power to the south.

The work, begun by Alexander, of emancipating the serfs, and which some have thought would have cost him his life, if he had not been the victim of typhus fever, has been perfected by the present emperor. This may pave the way for liberating the forty millions which still remain in a servile condition.

It has been lately promulgated that, according to an ancient usage in Russia, no czar can reign longer than twenty-five years, a term which the present emperor's reign approaches. In despotic countries, custom being the only check to the will of the sovereign, has a force which it does not possess in free governments; and it remains to be seen whether this relic of barbarism will be still operative, or be abrogated by the emperor, as unworthy of a civilized people and an enlightened age.

TURKEY.

The present sultan, or sovereign of Turkey, as well as his predecessor, has aimed at the only course likely to avert or long retard the destiny of his country, which is to introduce into it some of the institutions of Europe; especially those which relate to the security of

property, the administration of justice, the management of the public finances, and the modern art of war. But the difficulties he encounters at every step, in the ignorance, indolence, and inveterate prejudices of his people, makes the progress of reform a slow one; and here, as everywhere else, the Mohammedan crescent seems destined to bow to the Christian cross. Such is the acknowledged imbecility of the sultan's government, that, in 1845, the province of Syria would have been wrested from his dominion by his own nominal vassal, the Pacha of Egypt, but for the intervention of European allies. In the meantime, the reforms which have been introduced, in the abolition of the slave markets, in the collection of the taxes, in the privileges granted to Christians and Jews, and the separation of the military from the civil power in the provinces, are all good in themselves, though they should lead to no further benefit.

SWITZERLAND.

The German community, including Switzerland, being divided, not very unequally into Protestants and Catholics, there is, in this diversity of religious creeds and worships, materials of disagreement and ill-will that are always ready to lead to open hostility. It was a few years since productive of angry controversy in more than one part of Germany, which, however, terminated in nothing serious. But the Jesuits having been expelled from France in 1830, as dangerous political agents, and most of them having taken refuge in the Catholic cantons of Switzerland, the Protestant cantons took the alarm, and insisted on their expulsion from their new homes. Of the population of the whole 22 cantons, amounting to 2,000,000, about two-thirds are Protestants, but the Catholic cantons, sympathizing with the Jesuits, and unwilling to be thus dictated to, insisted on their sovereign rights; and, the better to defend them, entered into a separate league, called, on that account, the *Sonderbond*. This was declared by the Protestants to be a direct violation of the Helvetic Constitution, and, in their mutual recriminations, the parties came to open war. The superior power of the Protestants finally prevailed, and they succeeded in driving the Jesuits from Switzerland, some of whom found an asylum in Austria and some in Italy.

ITALY.

One of the smallest States in Europe, and the last where we should have looked for anything like political reformation, has lately afforded a subject of unmingled pleasure to the liberal minded of all nations. The new Pope, late Cardinal Maffei, who has assumed the title of Pius IX., seems bent upon meliorating the condition of

his people, and of awakening in them a spirit of industry and improvement. He has removed the objections which his predecessors made to railroads, and has encouraged the establishment of manufactures. He has, in the form of a national council of one hundred members, established a deliberative assembly, which is hereafter to be elective, like the Senate of the United States—one-third every two years. He has even ventured on the delicate office of partial religious reforms; thus he has removed some of the disabilities of the Jews, and some of the restrictions on public amusements during Lent. The liberal course of the head of the Catholic Church has excited a lively interest with the American people, which they have on several occasions formally manifested; and some of the measures of the pontiff, which were merely the dictates of an enlightened benevolence, seem to have been too hastily regarded here as political, because they were the object of the very sensitive jealousy of the Austrian government, which has an instinctive dread of all innovation. He doubtless does not mean to proceed far in the career of reform, and he has countenanced and openly vindicated the refugee Jesuits in his dominions. But the spirit of improvement which he has evoked may not stop at the precise point he wishes; and although the population of the papal states does not exceed three millions, yet from their central situation, and the fact that the reforming spirit received their first impetus from the Holy See itself, who can say what influence those States may exert on the other parts of Italy, all speaking the same language, having the same religion, and prompted to the desire of change by so many present feelings as well as ancient recollections. Throughout all Italy, now containing upwards of twenty-four millions of people, there has never been since the first spasmodic sympathy with revolutionary France, a desire for political regeneration so general or so strong as at present.

Nor is Italy singular in this respect. There is, on the contrary, no part of Europe except, perhaps, it may be Russia, in which there are not symptoms of the same feelings in the people—a growing impatience of their political wrongs, and a growing consciousness of their own strength. The problem is thus everywhere presented to European rulers whether it is safer to make timely concessions to the complaints of the people, or to resist them on the threshold—there being both argument and example to show, on the one hand, that a conciliatory policy would encourage popular encroachments, and on the other that it would allay them.

AFRICA.

Africa, equal in area to one-fourth of the habitable globe, affords no materials to the historian except on its coasts, and few of moment

even there. The transactions of its interior are utterly unknown to the rest of the world; and, though they were known, they would have too much sameness and rudeness to give either interest or instruction.

The last struggles of the Arabs in Algeria, amounting to about two millions of people, have been already mentioned. Whenever the power of France is once firmly established there, her former designs on Egypt are likely to revive, and nothing but the jealousy of the other great European powers would be likely to prevent her from carrying them into effect.

There is a small spot on the Atlantic coast of Africa that is regarded with great interest by philanthropists, not so much for what it is, as what it is capable of becoming. The settlement of Liberia, insignificant as it now is, may be the means of introducing the useful arts, Christianity, and civilization into the heart of Africa. It extends about 300 miles on the coast, but its breadth is but from 20 to 30 miles. The Colonization Society, which has the credit of making this settlement, having surrendered to the settlers the right to govern themselves, in fulfilment of its original promise, the latter, in August last, adopted a constitution or form of government, which is now said to be in successful operation. The whole number of colored emigrants from the United States, including the Maryland colony at Cape Palmas, their children, and about 500 natives admitted to the rights of citizenship, then amounted to 5000. But the natives who acknowledged themselves subject to the laws of Liberia, are said to be about 80,000.

This colony has advanced much more slowly than its friends anticipated, but its climate being unhealthy, even to the emigrants of the colored race, until they become inured to it, scarcely any but those emancipated in the United States have migrated thither. But it seems probable that as the colony grows the greater will be the proportionate number of emigrants, since it will then present more attractions to the ambitious, the adventurous, and the commercial portion of the people of color in the United States; and, should it ever become populous, it may solve some important problems relative to our species—one is, whether it is possible for a people inhabiting the torrid zone to be at once a free and industrious community; and another is, whether there is in the African race a natural inferiority in intellectual endowments.

The war with the Kafirs and the British troops at the Cape of Good Hope still continues. It originated in consequence of an attack made by these rude people on some of the settlers who ventured too near them, and whom they no doubt considered as intruders. Their numbers are estimated at 100,000, and they are nomadic in their habits, but are both physically and mentally infe-

rior to any other known tribes of the African race. Though their resistance may be protracted by the difficulty of transporting military stores and provisions in a rugged country without roads, they must ere long share the fate of all rude nations which are brought into conflict with those who are aided by science and art.* The interior of Africa may in time be penetrated from the south by the English, as by the colony of Liberia from the west, and by the French from the north, and may thus owe to foreign intruders those arts and civilization which have never been indigenous in that part of the old continent.

ASIA.

Though Asia contains probably more than two-thirds of the people of this globe, it presents but few objects of interest to the western world.

China, with a population, it is believed, of more than 300,000,000, exhibits to the eye of the distant observer one smooth, unruffled surface; and while so many of our fellow-beings are traversing this great moral Pacific in every direction, in pursuit of happiness, or of the mere means of subsistence, all that they do or suffer, except in the small portion accessible to strangers, is almost as little known to the rest of the world as if they occurred in another planet. The recent admission of strangers into Canton, and of Christian missionaries into the interior, have increased our knowledge of a small part of that country, and have given us more authentic information of the habits and character of its singular people. It would seem that while the most indigent portion of its population severely feel the pressure of numbers on the means of subsistence, there is among the classes above them, constituting a large majority of the nation, a degree of domestic comfort that is rarely exceeded anywhere; and we cannot, without confounding terms, pronounce that government positively bad in which peace, order, and competence are secured to the greater number. The mass of the people are, however, ignorant and superstitious, and some moral abuses, particularly infanticide, call for reform. Now that they are brought into closer contact with Europeans, it seems impossible that they will not profit by the intercourse; and the missionaries will take the lead in the diffusion of religious and moral light among them. Should they ever be induced, in writing their language, to substitute alphabetical characters for their present system of complicated and arbitrary symbols, it is not easy to say what effect it may have on the mind and character of three or four hundred millions of people speaking the same tongue. The difficulties of their written language have probably presented great impediments to the advancement of literature and science with

* Sir Henry Pottinger has since reduced this tribe to submission.

their educated classes, and have certainly impeded the diffusion of knowledge among the people.

The admission of strangers into Canton, secured by the treaty of Nankin, made with Great Britain, has been followed by occasional collisions between them and the natives, which afforded a cause or a pretext to the Chinese for again closing that city to foreigners early in 1846. But Sir John Davis, the British naval commander, having immediately refused to surrender the Island of Chusan to the Chinese, blockaded the city, and threatened it with bombardment, it was again opened to foreign traders. Similar collisions, sometimes attended with the loss of life, have since occurred, and the difficulty of ascertaining the offenders, and of bringing them to punishment, seems to be fruitful of angry discussions for the time, and may lead to future hostility.

Japan still adheres, with inflexible constancy, to its policy of excluding all foreigners from any intercourse, even commercial, with their country; and the joint efforts of England, France, and the United States, in 1846, to bring about one, were utterly fruitless.

India may now be considered to be wholly under the British dominion, and is likely long to remain so. The time, however, must come when the ties which now bind them to their present rulers must be severed, but whether by the efforts of some of their own tribes, as brave as the Sikhs, and more numerous, or by a foreign invader from the west, or the disaffection of the mercenary Seapoys, or by the slow growth of knowledge and national pride in the whole Hindoo nation, time only can reveal. A thousand years hence, the fact that two hundred millions of people were kept in subjection by a small number of persons, not holding the first rank in an island on the opposite side of the globe, containing not twenty millions, will seem too strange for comprehension or belief. It certainly is one of the most marvellous facts in human annals.

The English settlements in New Holland are steadily increasing in numbers, and still more rapidly in wealth. They are likely to separate from the mother country long before India; but, whether they become independent or remain colonial, they will lay the foundation for adding this vast region to those in which the English language is spoken, and the Anglo-Saxon race predominate.

In this coup d'œil of the History of the World for the two preceding years, we may mention, among the memorable events, the invention of gun cotton, by Schoënbrun, and the discovery of a new planet, Neptune, by Mons. Le Verrier, in France. The last affords one of the greatest triumphs of mathematical and physical science, as the existence of the planet was shown by circumstantial

proof before it was actually seen; and the same course of reasoning by Mr. Adams, in England, led to a similar inference.

DOCUMENTS—MEXICAN WAR.

[The following important documents we connect with the preceding Historical Review. They relate to the war with Mexico, a portion of the history of the past two years that will ever be deeply interesting to American citizens, on account of the circumstances which led to its commencement, the destruction of human life that ensued, and the valor, constancy and daring of our officers and soldiers who achieved the conquest of Mexico.

We have given all the documents that the limits of our present number will permit, and will supply hereafter such others as may be necessary to complete the record.]

(THE SECRETARY OF WAR TO GENERAL TAYLOR.)

[*Confidential.*]

WAR DEPARTMENT, *May 28, 1845.*

SIR:—I am directed by the President to cause the forces now under your command, and those which may be assigned to it, to be put into a position where they may most promptly and efficiently act in defence of Texas, in the event it shall become necessary or proper to employ them for that purpose. The information received by the Executive of the United States warrants the belief that Texas will shortly accede to the terms of annexation. As soon as the Texan Congress shall have given its consent to annexation, and a convention shall assemble and accept the terms offered in the resolutions of Congress, Texas will then be regarded by the executive government here so far a part of the United States as to be entitled from this government to defence and protection from foreign invasion and Indian incursions. The troops under your command will be placed and kept in readiness to perform this duty.

In the letter addressed to you from the Adjutant General's office, of the 21st of March, you were instructed to hold a portion of the troops under your immediate command in readiness to move into Texas under certain contingencies, and upon further orders from this department. In the treaty between the United States and Mexico, the two governments mutually stipulated to use all the means in their power to maintain peace and harmony among the Indian nations inhabiting the lands on their borders, and to restrain by force any hostilities and incursions by these nations within their respective boundaries, so that the one would not suffer the Indians within its limits to attack, in any manner whatever, the citizens of the other, or the Indians residing upon the territories of the other. (See the 33d article, a copy of which is herewith transmitted.) The obligations which in this respect are due to Mexico by this treaty, are due also to Texas. Should the Indians residing within the limits of the United States, either by themselves, or associated with others, attempt any hostile movement in regard to Texas, it will be your duty to employ the troops under your command to repel and chastise them; and for this purpose you will give the necessary instructions to the military posts on the upper Red river, (although not under your immediate command,) and, with the approbation of the Texan authorities

make such movements, and take such position, within the limits of Texas, as in your judgment may be necessary. You are also directed to open immediate correspondence with the authorities of Texas, and with any diplomatic agent of the United States, (if one should be residing therein,) with a view to information and advice in respect to the common Indian enemy, as well as to any foreign power. This communication and consultation with the Texan authorities, &c., are directed with a view to enable you to avail yourself of the superior local knowledge they may possess, but not for the purpose of placing you, or any portion of the forces of the United States, under the orders of any functionary not in the regular line of command above you.

Should the territories of Texas be invaded by a foreign power, and you shall receive certain intelligence through her functionaries of that fact, after her convention shall have acceded to the terms of annexation contained in the resolutions of the Congress of the United States, you will at once employ, in the most effective manner your judgment may dictate, the forces under your command, for the defence of these territories, and to expel the invaders.

It is supposed here that, for the mere purpose of repelling a common Indian enemy, as above provided for, it may not be necessary that you should march across the Sabine or upper Red river (at least in the first instance) with more than the particular troops which you were desired in the instructions before referred to, of the 21st March, to hold in immediate readiness for the field, but it is not intended to restrict you positively to that particular amount of force. On the contrary, according to the emergency, you may add any other corps, or any number of companies within your department deemed necessary, beginning with those nearest at hand; and in the contingency of a *foreign* invasion of Texas, as above specified, other regiments from a distance may be ordered to report to you.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

General Z. TAYLOR,
Fort Jesup, Louisiana.

[*Confidential.*]

WAR DEPARTMENT, *June 15, 1845.*

SIR:—On the 4th day of July next, or very soon thereafter, the convention of the people of Texas will probably accept the proposition of annexation, under the joint resolutions of the late Congress of the United States. That acceptance will constitute Texas an integral portion of our country.

In anticipation of that event, you will forthwith make a forward movement with the troops under your command, and advance to the mouth of the Sabine, or to such other point on the Gulf of Mexico, or its navigable waters, as in your judgment may be most convenient for an embarkation at the proper time for the western frontier of Texas.

In leaving to your judgment to decide the route, it is intended that you choose the most expeditious, having due regard to the health and efficiency of the troops on reaching the point of destination.

The force under your immediate command at and near Fort Jesup to be put in motion on the receipt of these instructions, will be the 3d and 4th regiments of infantry, and seven companies of the 2d regiment of dragoons. The two absent companies of the 4th infantry have been ordered to join their regiments. Artillery will be ordered from New Orleans.

It is understood that suitable forage for cavalry cannot be obtained in the region which the troops are to occupy; if this be so, the dragoons must leave their horses and serve as riflemen. But it is possible that horses of the country accustomed to subsist on meagre forage may be procured if it be found necessary. You will therefore take the precaution to order a portion of the cavalry equipments to accompany the regiment, with a view to mounted service.

The point of your ultimate destination is the western frontier of Texas, where you will select and occupy, on or near the Rio Grande del Norte, such a site as will consist with the health of the troops, and will be best adapted to repel invasion, and to protect what, in the event of annexation, will be our western border. You will limit yourself to the defence of the territory of Texas, unless Mexico should declare war against the United States.

Your movement to the Gulf of Mexico, and your preparations to embark for the western frontier of Texas, are to be made without any delay; but you will not effect a landing on that frontier until you have yourself ascertained the due acceptance of Texas of the proffered terms of annexation, or until you receive directions from Mr. Donelson.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
 GEORGE BANCROFT.

To Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR,
U. S. Army, Com'g 1st Dept., Fort Jesup, La.

P. S.—The revenue cutters Spencer and Woodbury have been placed by the Treasury Department at the disposition of Mr. Donelson.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *July 8, 1845.*

SIR:—This department is informed that Mexico has some military establishments on the east side of the Rio Grande, which are, and for some time have been, in the actual occupancy of her troops. In carrying out the instructions heretofore received, you will be careful to avoid any acts of aggression unless an actual state of war should exist. The Mexican forces at the posts in their possession, and which have been so, will not be disturbed as long as the relations of peace between the United States and Mexico continue.

WM. L. MARCY.

Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, July 30, 1845.*

SIR:—Your letter, from New Orleans, of the 20th instant, addressed to the Adjutant General, has been received and laid before the President, and he desires me to express to you his approval of your movements.

He has not the requisite information in regard to the country to enable him to give any positive directions as to the position you ought to take, or the movements which it may be expedient to make. These must be governed by circumstances. While avoiding, as you have been instructed to do, all aggressive measures towards Mexico, as long as the relations of peace exist between that republic and the United States, you are expected to occupy, protect, and defend the territory of Texas to the extent that it has been occupied by the people of Texas. The Rio Grande is claimed to be the boundary between the two countries, and up to this boundary you are to extend your protection, only excepting any posts on the eastern side thereof, which are in the actual occupancy of Mexican forces, or Mexican settlements over which the republic of Texas did not exercise jurisdiction at the period of annexation, or shortly before that event. It is expected that, in selecting the establishment for your troops, you will approach as near the boundary line—the Rio Grande—as prudence will dictate. With this view, the President desires that your position, for a part of your forces at least, should be west of the river Nueces.

You are directed to ascertain and communicate to this department the number of Mexican troops now at Matamoras, and the other Mexican posts along the border, their position, the condition of them, and particularly the measures taken or contemplated to increase or strengthen them. If you should have any reason to believe that the government of Mexico is concentrating forces on the

boundaries of the two countries, you will not only act with reference to such a state of things, but give the earliest information to this department.

Very respectfully, &c.,

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR,
Commanding the Army of Occupation in Texas.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, August 23, 1845.*

SIR:—The information hitherto received as to the intentions of Mexico, and the measures she may adopt, does not enable the administration here to give you more explicit instructions in regard to your movements than those which have been already forwarded to you. There is reason to believe that Mexico is making efforts to assemble a large army on the frontier of Texas, for the purpose of entering its territory and holding forcible possession of it. Of their movements you are doubtless advised, and we trust have taken, or early will take, prompt and efficient steps to meet and repel any such hostile incursion. Should Mexico assemble a large body of troops on the Rio Grande, and cross it with a considerable force, such a movement must be regarded as an invasion of the United States, and the commencement of hostilities. You will, of course, use all the authority which has been or may be given you, to meet such a state of things. Texas must be protected from hostile invasion, and for that purpose you will of course employ to the utmost extent all the means you possess or can command.

An order has been this day issued for sending one thousand more men into Texas to join those under your command. When the existing orders are carried into effect, you will have with you a force of four thousand men of the regular army. We are not enabled to judge what auxiliary force can, upon an emergency, be brought together from Texas, and as a precautionary measure you are authorized to accept volunteers from the states of Louisiana and Alabama, and even from Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Should Mexico declare war, or commence hostilities by crossing the Rio Grande with a considerable force, you are instructed to lose no time in giving information to the authorities of each or any of the above-mentioned states, as to the number of volunteers you may want from them respectively. Should you require troops from any of these states, it would be important to have them with the least possible delay. It is not doubted that at least two regiments from New Orleans and one from Mobile could be obtained and expeditiously brought into the field. You will cause it to be known at these places what number and description of troops you desire to receive from them in the contemplated emergency. The authorities of these states will be apprized that you are authorized to receive volunteers from them, and you may calculate that they will promptly join you when it is made known that their services are required. Arms, ammunition, and camp equipage for the auxiliary troops that you may require, will be sent forward subject to your orders. You will so dispose of them as to be most available in case they should be needed, at the same time with a due regard to their safety and preservation. Orders have been issued to the naval force on the gulf of Mexico to co-operate with you. You will, as far as practicable, hold communication with the commanders of our national vessels in your vicinity, and avail yourself of any assistance that can be derived from their co-operation. The *Lexington* is ordered into service as a transport ship, and will sail in a few days from New York with a detachment of United States troops for Corpus Christi. She will be employed as the exigency of the public service may require. In order to keep up a proper communication between the army in Texas and the United States, the *On-ka-hy-e*, the *Harney*, and the *Dolphin* will be put

into service as soon as they can be made ready, as dispatch vessels to convey intelligence, supplies, &c. You will avail yourself of these vessels and all other proper means to keep the government here advised of your operations, and of the state of things in Texas and Mexico.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, yours,

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

General Z. TAYLOR.

[Sent to the quartermaster at New Orleans.]

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, August 25, 1845.*

SIR:—General Taylor, to whom has been committed the command of the army of occupation in Texas, is authorized to draw any auxiliary force he may need from Texas. If such aid should be wanted, it is not doubted that the patriotic citizens of that state will rally to his assistance with alacrity, in sufficient numbers to enable him, in conjunction with United States troops, to repel the invasion of Texas by Mexico, should it be attempted. Though our information as to the force Mexico may bring into the field for such a purpose is not very accurate, yet there is reason to apprehend that it is more numerous than that under the command of General Taylor; and may, perhaps, exceed his effective force when augmented with the auxiliary aid he may derive from Texas. Besides, he may need additional troops to a greater number, and sooner than they can be furnished him from that state. Should he need assistance from your state, he is directed to signify to you the number and description of troops he may deem necessary to receive as volunteers into service. Relying upon the zeal and public spirit of the gallant militia of Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, the government here do not doubt that he will be promptly furnished with such and so many as he may express a desire to have mustered into the service of the United States; and it has the most perfect reliance upon your countenance and co-operation in organizing and sending into Texas such a volunteer force from your state as he may desire. It is necessarily left to his judgment to designate the number. It is proper to observe, that the emergency rendering such assistance from the militia of your state necessary, does not appear to have been foreseen by Congress, and consequently no appropriation was made for paying them; but it is not to be doubted that such a provision will be promptly made when congress shall again assemble. In order to be paid, the state troops must be mustered into service. In organizing companies and regiments for that purpose, the number of officers must be proportioned to that of the privates. Enclosed I send you, from the Adjutant General, a statement of the number and rank of officers for each company of men, as well as the regimental and staff officers, should a regiment of volunteers be called for. From the known patriotism and military ardor of the militia of your state, it is presumed that volunteers to the number that may be required will readily tender their services to their country in the contemplated emergency. Should aid from your state be required by the commanding general in Texas, it will be of the utmost importance that the troops should be sent into that state without delay. This consideration will render it proper that they should come from such part of the state as can most promptly furnish them.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

His Excellency BENJAMIN FITZPATRICK,
Governor of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, Alabama.

His Excellency A. G. BROWN,
Governor of Mississippi, Jackson, Mississippi.

His Excellency ALEXANDER MOUTON,
Governor of Louisiana, New Orleans, Louisiana.

Letters were also addressed on the 28th of the same month, to the governors

of Tennessee and Kentucky, on the same subject, and in the same words as the above.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, August 30, 1845.*

SIR:—Only one letter has been received from you since you entered Texas, and that was written the day after you arrived at Aransas Bay. Permit me to urge upon you the importance of availing yourself of every opportunity of communicating with this department. It is desirable to have early and correct information from you, to enable the government to form a true judgment of the designs and movements of Mexico, founded on ascertained facts. It is presumed that, in pursuance of previous instructions from this department, you have taken special pains to become acquainted with the proceedings of Mexico, particularly in regard to the number and kind of Mexican troops at Matamoras, Monterey, and other places, as well as those which are on the march towards them, and may be brought to act against your forces or pushed across the Rio Grande, either in the vicinity of Matamoras, or at distant points on that river. You will not, I trust, underrate the importance of such information, or fail to use the proper and necessary means for acquiring it. You are directed, should you deem it expedient, to employ competent and trustworthy persons to obtain such intelligence.

The instructions heretofore issued, enjoin upon you to defend Texas from invasion and Indian hostilities; and, should Mexico invade it, you will employ all your forces to repulse the invaders, and drive all Mexican troops beyond the Rio Grande. Should you judge the forces under your command inadequate, you will not fail to draw sufficient auxiliary aid from Texas, and, if there be need, from the states, pursuant to your previous instructions. It is not to be doubted, that on your notification, volunteer troops, to the number you may require, will rally with alacrity to your standard. You have been advised that the assembling a large Mexican army on the borders of Texas, and crossing the Rio Grande with a considerable force, will be regarded by the Executive here, as an invasion of the United States, and the commencement of hostilities. An attempt to cross that river with such a force will also be considered in the same light. There may be other acts on the part of Mexico which would put an end to the relations of peace between that republic and the United States. Should depredations be committed on our commerce by her public armed vessels, or privateers acting under her authority, this will constitute a state of war.

Orders have been issued to the vessels of the United States in the gulf, to furnish you with information of any hostile proceedings of Mexico, and the state of things in that republic. You will embrace every occasion that may present, to forward to the commanders of these vessels such intelligence as you may possess concerning the movements of the military forces and the state of things in Mexico and Texas, and to suggest to them such assistance and co-operation as you may desire to receive.

In case of war, either declared or made manifest by hostile acts, your main object will be the protection of Texas; but the pursuit of this object will not necessarily confine your action within the territory of Texas. Mexico having thus commenced hostilities, you may, in your discretion, should you have sufficient force and be in condition to do so, cross the Rio Grande, disperse or capture the forces assembling to invade Texas, defeat the junction of troops uniting for that purpose, drive them from their positions on either side of that river, and, if deemed practicable and expedient, take and hold possession of Matamoras and other places in the country. I scarcely need to say that enterprises of this kind are only to be ventured on, under circumstances presenting a fair prospect of success.

Very respectfully, &c.

WM. L. MARCY,

Secretary of War.

Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR, *Commanding the U. S. Army in Texas.*

P. S.—Herewith you will find a copy of the order of the Navy Department to Commodore Connor.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, October 16, 1845.*

SIR:—The information which we have here, renders it probable that no serious attempts will at present be made by Mexico to invade Texas, although she continues to threaten incursions. Previous instructions will have put you in possession of the views of the government of the United States, not only as to the extent of its territorial claims, but of its determination to assert them. In carrying out these instructions, you will be left very much to your own judgment, by reason of your superior knowledge of localities, and the earlier notice you may receive of the probable views of Mexico, and the movements of her troops.

On the supposition that no active operations on your part will be required during the approaching winter, an important question to be decided is the position or positions to be occupied by your forces. This must be determined mainly with reference to the objects for which the army under your command was sent into Texas. You will approach as near the western boundary of Texas (the Rio Grande) as circumstances will permit; having reference to reasonable security; to accommodations for putting your troops into winter huts, if deemed necessary; to the facility and certainty of procuring or receiving supplies; and to checking any attempted incursions by the Mexican forces or the Indian tribes. Ought your present position to be changed? the forces, which are, or soon will be, assembled under your command, be kept together or divided? and, if divided, what positions are to be taken, and how are they to be divided? These are questions which must be, in a measure, left to your judgment, or, at least, the decision upon them here, if there be time, will be influenced in no inconsiderable degree by the information and views which you may furnish the department. You need not, therefore, wait for directions from Washington, to carry out what you may deem proper to be done. Upon all the points above enumerated, and others not suggested, your reports and views in full are desired, not only with reference to the continuance of the present aspect of affairs between the United States and Mexico, but in the contingency of your selecting, or being directed to take, a position on the banks of the Rio Grande near its mouth, or places above, or even in the event of open hostilities. It is expected that the officers of the Engineer and Topographical Corps, who have been sent into Texas, will examine, as far as practicable, under your direction, the country, with a view to selecting eligible positions for permanent or temporary occupation, for depots of supplies, arms, and munitions of war. It is extremely desirable that the sea-coast, or at least that part of it which will be likely to be visited by our vessels in aid of any contemplated military operations, should be better known here than it now is; as well as the character of the several rivers which may present obstacles to the movements of our forces, or furnish facilities for transporting supplies. You are requested to avail yourself of all proper occasions, and employ the means you possess, to collect information in regard to all these matters, and forward it to this department.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WM. L. MARCY,

Secretary of War.

Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR,

Commanding Army of Occupation in Texas.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, January 13, 1846.*

SIR:—I am directed by the President to instruct you to advance and occupy, with the troops under your command, positions on or near the east bank of the

Rio del Norte, as soon as it can be conveniently done with reference to the season, and the routes by which your movements must be made. From the views heretofore presented to this department, it is presumed Point Isabel will be considered by you an eligible position. This point, or some one near it, and points opposite Matamoras and Mier, and in the vicinity of Laredo, are suggested for your consideration; but you are left to your better knowledge to determine the post or posts which you are to occupy, as well as the question of dividing your forces with a view to occupying two or more positions.

In the positions you may take in carrying out these instructions and other movements that may be made, the use of the Rio del Norte may be very convenient, if not necessary. Should you attempt to exercise the right which the United States have in common with Mexico to the free navigation of this river, it is probable that Mexico would interpose resistance. You will not attempt to enforce this right without further instructions.

You are requested to report to this department, without delay, what means you may require, if any, beyond those you now possess, to enforce and maintain our common right to navigate this river, as well as your views of the importance of this right in the defence and protection of the State of Texas.

It is not designated, in our present relations with Mexico, that you should treat her as an enemy; but, should she assume that character by a declaration of war, or any open act of hostility towards us, you will not act merely on the defensive, if your relative means enable you to do otherwise.

Since instructions were given you to draw aid from Texas, in case you should deem it necessary, the relations between that State and the United States have undergone some modification. Texas is now fully incorporated into our union of States, and you are hereby authorized by the President to make a requisition upon the executive of that State for such of its militia force as may be needed to repel invasion, or to secure the country against apprehended invasion.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your obedient servant.

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

Brig. Gen. Z. TAYLOR.

WAR DEPARTMENT, *Washington, January 20, 1846.*

SIR:—You will perceive by a letter which has been addressed to General Taylor, commanding the United States troops in your State, a copy of which I send to you herewith, that the President has authorized him, in case of hostilities between the United States and Mexico, and an invasion or threatened invasion of your State, to make a requisition for such militia force as in a possible state of things may be required from Texas.

By the request of the President I hereby apprise you of the directions which have been given to General Taylor, and express to you the confidence here entertained, that, should he make a requisition, it will be promptly responded to.

WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

His Excellency JAMES HENDERSON,
Governor of the State of Texas.

GENERAL TAYLOR TO THE ADJUTANT GENERAL.

HEADQUARTERS, 1ST MILITARY DEPARTMENT,
New Orleans, La., July 20, 1845.

SIR:—I respectfully acknowledge your communication of July 8, covering the instructions of the Secretary of War of the same date, relative to the Mexican settlements on this side of the Rio Grande. Those instructions will be closely obeyed; and the department may rest assured that I will take no step to inter-

rupt the friendly relations between the United States and Mexico. I am gratified at receiving these instructions, as they confirm my views, previously communicated, in regard to the proper line to be occupied at present by our troops.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brev. Brig. Gen. U.S.A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,

Steamship Alabama, Aransas Pass, Texas, July 28, 1845.

SIR:—I respectfully report my arrival at this place on the 25th instant, with eight companies of the third infantry, it having been found necessary to leave two companies of that regiment to be brought over in other transports.

The troops are temporarily established on St. Joseph's island. I am waiting the report of a boat expedition sent to Corpus Christi Bay before I determine on the site of an encampment. I hope to receive the necessary information in the course of the day, when I shall immediately commence the removal of the third infantry to the point selected. The position will probably be "Live Oak Point," in Aransas bay, some ten miles from our present position. I am very anxious to establish myself at the mouth of the Nueces, but the extreme shoalness of the water will, I fear, present an insuperable obstacle, unless we can procure lighters of much lighter draught than those we have at present.

The difficulties of effecting a debarkation on this coast, and of establishing depots for supplying the army, are much greater than I anticipated, and will render our operations at once embarrassing and expensive. Between Pass Cavallo and Brazos Santiago, there is no entrance for vessels drawing more than seven or eight feet; and the prevailing winds render the operation of lightening extremely uncertain and hazardous. We have been favored with fine weather, and, should it continue, the other transports, which may now be expected, will be enabled to discharge without difficulty.

We had a very favorable run from New Orleans; and I am happy to state that the health of the command was greatly improved by the voyage. The eight companies have scarcely any sickness at this time.

The day before leaving New Orleans, I received from Major Donelson a communication dated at Austin, on the 7th of July, informing me that the convention had unanimously accepted the proposition of annexation, and suggested that two companies should be posted at Austin. I still deem it best to concentrate my force until our relations with Mexico shall become settled, and until the country can be examined, and the best mode of supply ascertained.

I hear nothing important from the Mexican frontier. Some Indian depredations are committed from time to time near Corpus Christi, and will claim my first attention after I can get established.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brev. Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,

Corpus Christi, Texas, August 15, 1845.

SIR:—I have the honor to report that, by New Orleans papers of the 7th inst., I have received intelligence of the preparatory steps taken by Mexico towards a declaration of war against the United States. I shall spare no exertions to meet suitably this probable change in the relations between the two countries; and the additional force ordered to join me, as announced in your communica-

tion of July 30, will, I trust, enable me to do something more than maintain a merely defensive attitude on the Nueces. This will depend upon the demonstrations made by Mexico along the Rio Grande, in regard to which the Secretary of War has solicited a report. I am enabled to say, upon information which is regarded as authentic, that General Arista was to leave Monterey on the 4th of this month for Matamoras with 1,500 men—500 being cavalry. I learn, from the same source, that there are 500 regular troops at Matamoras. In regard to the force at other points on the Rio Grande, except the militia of the country, I have no information; nor do I hear that the reported concentration at Matamoras is for any purpose of invasion. I have but just arrived at this place, and hope in a few days to be able to obtain more full and precise intelligence concerning the movements of the Mexicans. I shall not fail to communicate promptly to the department all such intelligence upon which I think reliance can be placed.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brev. Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

P. S.—I enclose a sketch prepared by Lient. Eaton, of Aransas and Corpus Christi bays, showing our intended depot, and also our present position—Fort Marcy.

Z. T.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Corpus Christi, Texas, October 4, 1845.

SIR:—I beg leave to suggest some considerations in relation to the present position of our force, and the dispositions which may become necessary for the more effectual prosecution of the objects for which it has been concentrated. It will be recollected that the instructions of June 15, issued by Mr. Bancroft, then acting Secretary of War, directed me to “select and occupy, on or near the Rio Grande, such a site as will consist with the health of the troops, and will be best adapted to repel invasion,” &c. Brazos Santiago is the nearest entrance to the mouth of the Rio Grande; and Point Isabel, within that entrance, and twenty-one miles from Matamoras, would have fulfilled more completely than any other position the conditions imposed by the Secretary. But we had no artillery, no engineer force or appliances, and but a moderate amount of infantry; and the occupation of Point Isabel, under these circumstances, and with at least the possibility of resistance from the Mexicans, might have compromised the safety of the command. I therefore determined to take up the next accessible position in the rear, which is the mouth of the Nueces river. All the information which I could obtain before leaving New Orleans, seemed to point to Corpus Christi as the most suitable point for concentration; and, although before the President’s instructions of July 30 reached me, I would have preferred a position on the left bank of the river, yet a careful examination of the country had already convinced me that none could be found combining so many advantages as this. Every day’s experience has confirmed these impressions. Corpus Christi is healthy, easily supplied, and well situated to hold in observation the course of the Rio Grande from Matamoras to Laredo—being about 150 miles from several points on the river. I have reason to believe, moreover, that a salutary moral effect has been exercised upon the Mexicans. Their traders are continually carrying home the news of our position and increasing numbers, and are confessedly struck by the spectacle of a large camp of well-appointed and disciplined troops, accompanied by perfect security to their persons and property, instead of the impressment and pillage to which they are subject in their own country. For these reasons, our position thus far has, I think; been the best possible; but, now that the entire force will soon be concentrated, it may well be a question whether the views of government will be

best carried out by our remaining at this point. It is with great deference that I make any suggestions on topics which may become matter of delicate negotiation; but if our government, in settling the question of boundary, makes the line of the Rio Grande an ultimatum, I cannot doubt that the settlement will be greatly facilitated and hastened by our taking possession at once of one or two suitable points on or quite near that river. Our strength and state of preparation should be displayed in a manner not to be mistaken. However salutary may be the effect produced upon the border people by our presence here, we are too far from the frontier to impress the government of Mexico with our readiness to vindicate, by force of arms, if necessary, our title to the country as far as the Rio Grande. The "army of occupation" will, in a few days, be concentrated at this point, in condition for vigorous and efficient service. Mexico having as yet made no positive declaration of war, or committed any overt act of hostilities, I do not feel at liberty, under my instructions, particularly those of July 8, to make a forward movement to the Rio Grande without authority from the War Department.

In case a forward movement should be ordered or authorized, I would recommend the occupation of Point Isabel and Laredo, as best adapted to the purposes of observing the course of the river, and covering the frontier settlements of Texas. Point Isabel is accessible by water, and can be safely occupied by two brigades of infantry, with a suitable force of field artillery. On the arrival of the steamer Harney, I shall order a careful reconnoissance of Brazos Santiago, as a necessary preliminary measure to the occupation of Point Isabel. To occupy Laredo will require a land march from this point. Supplies may probably be transported by water as high as San Patricio, and possibly to the junction of the Rio Frio with the Nueces. I propose to establish a depot on the Nueces river, probably at the crossing of the San Antonio and Laredo road, from which to operate towards the Rio Grande. You will perceive from my "special orders" No. 24, that a reconnoissance has been ordered in that direction. A brigade of infantry, with the cavalry, and a battery or two of field artillery, will be sufficient for the occupation of Laredo. That town is on the left bank of the Rio Grande, and possesses the military advantage of holding in observation the main route from the interior of Mexico through Monterey to Matamoras.

In case it should be found impracticable to establish a suitable depot on the Nueces, the entire force, after strengthening San Antonio, might be thrown forward to Point Isabel, where it could be readily supplied, and held in readiness for any further service.

I have deemed it my duty to make the above suggestions. Should they be favorably considered, and instructions based upon them, I will thank you to send the latter in duplicate to Lieut. Colonel Hunt—one copy to be dispatched *direct*, without delay; the other to be sent via Galveston, should a steamer be running to that port from New Orleans.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

P. S.—It is proper to add, that should any auxiliary force be required, I propose to draw it wholly from Texas. I do not conceive that it will become necessary, under any circumstances, to call for volunteers from the United States.

Z. T.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Corpus Christi, Texas, February 4, 1846.

SIR:—I respectfully acknowledge the communication of the Secretary of War, dated January 13th, and containing the instructions of the President to move

forward with my force to the Rio Grande. I shall lose no time in making the necessary preparations for carrying out those instructions.

The occupation of Point Isabel or Brazos Santiago as a depot will be indispensable. That point and a position on or near the river opposite Matamoras, will, I think, answer all present purposes. At any rate, I shall not separate my force further until the position of affairs shall render it entirely safe to do so.

I propose to abandon this position entirely, as soon after our march as the stores, hospital, &c., can be transferred to St. Joseph's island. It will be necessary to keep up an establishment at that point for the present, although our supplies will come to Point Isabel direct from New Orleans.

In reply to the call of the Secretary for information as to what means, if any, will be required "to enforce and maintain our common right to navigate" the Rio Grande, I would respectfully state that, until I reach the river and ascertain the condition of things in the frontier States of Mexico, temper of the people, &c., I cannot give any satisfactory answer to the question. I have every reason to believe that the people residing on the river are well disposed towards our government. Our advance to the Rio Grande will itself produce a powerful effect, and it may be that the common navigation of the river will not be disputed. It is very important to us, and will be indispensable when posts are established higher up, as must ultimately be the case.

I shall not call for any militia force in addition to what I already have, unless unforeseen circumstances shall render its employment necessary.

I beg leave again to call the attention of the department to the necessity of having our movement and position at Brazos Santiago covered by a small armed vessel. I deem this vitally important, and hope it will meet with favorable consideration.

We have no news from the interior of Mexico more recent than that derived from the New Orleans papers of the 26th January.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Corpus Christi, Texas, February 26, 1846.

SIR:—I have to report that the preparations for a forward movement of this command are now nearly completed. The examinations spoken of in my report of the 16th instant have shown the practicability of both routes—by the main land and by Padre island. The reconnoissance of Padre island extended to its southern extremity, and included the harbor of Brazos Santiago and Point Isabel; that of the main route reached to a point near the Little Colorado. A depot, with four days' forage, and subsistence for the army, will be thrown forward some forty miles, to the Santa Gertrudes. A detachment of two companies, to establish and cover this depot, will march, on the 28th, under Brevet Major Graham. In about a week thereafter, say the 7th of March, the cavalry will march, to be followed, at intervals of one day, by the brigades of infantry. By the 25th of March, at latest, I hope to be in position on the Rio Grande.

I have taken occasion to represent to some citizens of Matamoras, who were here with a large number of mules for sale, and who are represented to have considerable influence at home, that the United States government, in occupying the Rio Grande, has no motive of hostility towards Mexico, and that the army will, in no case, go beyond the river, unless hostilities should be commenced by the Mexicans themselves; that the Mexicans, living on this side, will not be disturbed in any way by the troops; that they will be protected in all their usages; and that everything which the army may need will be purchased from

them at fair prices. I also stated that, until the matter should be finally adjusted between the two governments, the harbor of Brazos Santiago would be open to the free use of the Mexicans as heretofore. The same views were impressed upon the Mexican custom-house officer at Brazos Santiago by Captain Hardee, who commanded the escort which covered the reconnoissance of Padre island.

We are entirely without news of interest from the frontier, or the interior of Mexico, our latest date from the capital being the 21st of January, and the same from Vera Cruz.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, Washington, D. C.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Corpus Christi, Texas, March 8, 1846.

SIR:—I respectfully report that the advance of the army, composed of the cavalry and Major Ringgold's light artillery, the whole under the command of Colonel Twiggs, took up the line of March this morning in the direction of Matamoras, its strength being 23 officers and 378 men. The advance will be followed in succession by the brigades of infantry, the last brigade marching on the 11th instant. The roads are in good order, the weather fine, and the troops in excellent condition for service.

Major Munroe will embark for Brazos Santiago in season to reach that harbor about the time the army will be in the vicinity of Point Isabel. He takes with him a siege train and a field battery. Captain Sanders, of the engineers, the officers of ordnance, and the pay department accompany Major Munroe.

The movement by water, to Brazos Santiago, will be covered by the revenue cutter "Woodbury," Captain Foster, whose commander has kindly placed her at my disposal for this service.

All proper arrangements have been made by the staff departments for supplying the army on the route, as well as establishing a depot for its further wants at Point Isabel.

I have deemed it proper to cause my "orders" No. 30, to be translated into Spanish, and circulated on the Rio Grande. Sixty copies have already been sent in advance of the army to Matamoras, Camargo, and Mier. This form of giving publicity to the spirit which actuates our movement in occupying the country, I thought preferable to a proclamation. I trust the order itself will meet the approval of the department. A few copies of the translation are herewith enclosed.

I shall again communicate with general headquarters before I march, and I expect to do so at least once on the route.

My headquarters will march with the rear brigade, but will soon pass to the advance of the army.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., comdg.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, Washington, D. C.

[Translation.]

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Order No. 30. Corpus Christi, March 8, 1846.

The army of occupation of Texas being now about to take a position upon the left bank of the Rio Grande, under the orders of the Executive of the United States, the general-in-chief desires to express the hope that the movement will

be advantageous to all concerned; and with the object of attaining this laudable end, he has ordered all under his command to observe, with the most scrupulous respect, the rights of all the inhabitants who may be found in peaceful prosecution of their respective occupations, as well on the left as on the right side of the Rio Grande. Under no pretext, nor in any way, will any interference be allowed with the civil rights or religious privileges of the inhabitants; but the utmost respect for them will be maintained.

Whatsoever may be needed for the use of the army, will be bought by the proper purveyor, and paid for at the highest prices. The general-in-chief has the satisfaction to say that he confides in the patriotism and discipline of the army under his command, and that he feels sure that his orders will be obeyed with the utmost exactness.

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,

Camp at "El Sauce," 119 miles from Corpus Christi, March 18, 1846.

SIR:—I avail myself of a chance opportunity to Corpus Christi to report that I have advanced to this point with the cavalry and 1st brigade of infantry. The 2d brigade encamps to-night about 7 miles in my rear; the 3d brigade about 19. I shall concentrate all my force on reaching the Little Colorado, 13 miles in my front, so as to be prepared for any contingency. I am happy to say that all the corps of the army are in fine condition and spirits, equal to any service that may be before them.

Within the last two days, our advance has met with small armed parties of Mexicans, who seemed disposed to avoid us. They were, doubtless, thrown out to get information of our advance.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,

Point Isabel, March 25, 1846.

SIR:—I respectfully report that I marched on the morning of the 23d instant with the entire army from the camp, near the Colorado, in the order prescribed in my order No. 35, herewith enclosed. After a march of fifteen miles, we reached, on the morning of the 24th, a point on the route from Matamoras to Point Isabel, eighteen miles from the former and ten from the latter place. I here left the infantry brigades under Brigadier General Worth, with instructions to proceed in the direction of Matamoras until he came to a suitable position for encampment, where he would halt, holding the route in observation, while I proceed with the cavalry to this point to communicate with our transports, supposed to have arrived in the harbor, and make the necessary arrangements for the establishment and defence of a depot.

While on my way hither, our column was approached by a party on its right flank, bearing a white flag. It proved to be a civil deputation from Matamoras, desiring an interview with me. I informed them that I would halt at the first suitable place on the road and afford them the desired interview. It was, however, found necessary, from the want of water, to continue the route to this place. The deputation halted while yet some miles from Point Isabel, declining to come further, and sent me a formal protest of the prefect of the northern district of Tamaulipas against our occupation of the country, which I enclose herewith. At this moment, it was discovered that the buildings at Point Isabel were

in flames. I then informed the bearer of the protest, that I would answer it when opposite Matamoras, and dismissed the deputation. I considered the conflagration before my eyes as a decided evidence of hostility, and was not willing to be trifled with any longer, particularly as I had reason to believe that the prefect, in making this protest, was but a tool of the military authorities at Matamoras.

The advance of the cavalry fortunately arrived here in season to arrest the fire, which consumed but three or four houses. The port captain, who committed the act under the orders, it is said, of General Mejia, had made his escape before its arrival. We found two or three inoffensive Mexicans here, the rest having left for Matamoras.

I was gratified to find that the water expedition had exactly answered to our land movement—the steamers arriving in the harbor only two or three hours before we reached Point Isabel, with the other transports close in their rear. The “Porpoise” and “Lawrence,” brigs of war, and cutter “Woodbury,” are lying outside. I have thought it necessary to order Captain Porter’s company to this place to reinforce Major Munroe. Our great depot must be here, and it is very important to secure it against any enterprise of the enemy. The engineer officers are now examining the ground with a view to tracing lines of defence and strengthening the position.

As soon as a sufficient amount of supplies can be thrown forward toward Matamoras, I shall march in the direction of that town and occupy a position as near it as circumstances will permit.

I enclose a sketch prepared by my aid-de-camp Lieutenant Eaton, exhibiting the route of march since leaving the Colorado, and the bearings of important points.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

[Translation.]

OFFICE OF THE PREFECT OF THE NORTHERN DISTRICT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF TAMAULIPAS.

GOD AND LIBERTY!

Santa Rita, March 23, 1846.

SIR:—Although the pending question respecting the annexation of the department of Texas to the United States is subject to the decision of the supreme government of Mexico, the fact of the advance of the army under your excellency’s orders over the line occupied by you at Corpus Christi, places me under the necessity, as the chief political authority of the northern district of Tamaulipas, to address you, as I have now the honor to do, through the commissioners, who will place this in your hands, and to inform you that the people under this prefecture, being justly alarmed at the invasion of an army, which, without any previous declaration of war, and without announcing explicitly the object proposed by it, comes to occupy a territory which never belonged to the insurgent province, cannot regard with indifference a proceeding so contrary to the conduct observed towards each other by civilized nations, and to the clearest principles of the law of nations; that, directed by honor and patriotism, and certain that nothing has been said officially by the cabinet of the Union to the Mexican government respecting the extension of the limits of Texas to the left bank of the Rio Bravo, trusting in the well-known justice of their cause, and using their natural right of defence, they (the citizens of this district) protest, in the most solemn manner, that neither now nor at any time do they, or will they, consent to separate themselves from the Mexican republic, and to unite themselves with

the United States, and that they are resolved to carry this firm determination into effect, resisting, so far as their strength will enable them, at all times and places, until the army under your excellency's orders shall recede and occupy its former positions; because, so long as it remains within the territory of Tamaulipas, the inhabitants must consider that whatsoever protestations of peace may be made, hostilities have been openly commenced by your excellency, the lamentable consequences of which will rest before the world exclusively on the heads of the invaders.

I have the honor to say this to your excellency, with the object indicated, and to assure you of my consideration and esteem.

JENES CARDENAS.

JUAN JOSE PINEDA.

To General Z. TAYLOR, &c.

[Extract.]

CAMP ON THE LEFT BANK OF THE RIO GRANDE,
Opposite Matamoras, March 29, 1846.

SIR:—I have the honor to report that I arrived at this camp yesterday with the forces under my command, no resistance having been offered to my advance to the banks of the river, nor any act of hostility committed by the Mexicans, except the capture of two of our dragoons, sent forward from the advanced guard. I deem it possible that these two men may have deserted to the enemy, as one of them, at least, bears a bad character. Our approach seems to have created much excitement in Matamoras, and a great deal of activity has been displayed since our arrival in the preparation of batteries. The left bank is now under reconnoissance of our engineer officers, and I shall lose no time in strengthening our position by such defensive works as may be necessary, employing for that purpose a portion of the heavy guns brought round by sea.

The attitude of the Mexicans is so far decidedly hostile. An interview has been held, by my direction, with the military authorities in Matamoras, but with no satisfactory result.

Under this state of things, I must again, and urgently, call your attention to the necessity of speedily sending recruits to this army.

The militia of Texas are so remote from the border * * * *
that we cannot depend upon their aid.

The strength gained by filling up the regiments here, even to the present feeble establishment, would be of very great importance.

I respectfully enclose a field report of the force now in this camp.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brev. Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

[Translation.]

HEADQUARTERS AT MATAMORAS, 2 o'clock, P. M.,
GOD AND LIBERTY! *April 12, 1846.*

FOURTH MILITARY DIVISION, *General-in-Chief.*

To explain to you the many grounds for the just grievances felt by the Mexican nation, caused by the United States government, would be a loss of time, and an insult to your good sense; I therefore pass at once to such explanations as I consider of absolute necessity.

Your government, in an incredible manner—you will even permit me to say an extravagant one, if the usage or general rules established and received among all civilized nations are regarded—has not only insulted, but has exasperated

the Mexican nation, bearing its conquering banner to the left bank of the Rio Bravo del Norte; and in this case, by explicit and definitive orders of my government, which neither can, will, nor should receive new outrages, I require you in all form, and at latest in the peremptory term of twenty-four hours, to break up your camp and retire to the other bank of the Nueces river, while our governments are regulating the pending question in relation to Texas. If you insist in remaining upon the soil of the department of Tamaulipas, it will clearly result that arms, and arms alone, must decide the question; and in that case I advise you that we accept the war to which, with so much injustice on your part, you provoke us, and that, on our part, this war shall be conducted conformably to the principles established by the most civilized nations; that is to say, that the law of nations and of war shall be the guide of my operations; trusting that on your part the same will be observed.

With this view, I tender you the considerations due to your person and respectable office.

PEDRO DE AMPUDIA.

Senor General-in-Chief of the U. S. Army, DON Z. TAYLOR.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp near Matamoras, Texas, April 12, 1846.

SENOR:—I have had the honor to receive your note of this date, in which you summon me to withdraw the forces under my command from their present position, and beyond the river Nueces, until the pending question between our governments, relative to the limits of Texas, shall be settled.

I need hardly advise you that, charged as I am, in only a military capacity, with the performance of specific duties, I cannot enter into a discussion of the international question involved in the advance of the American army. You will, however, permit me to say that the government of the United States has constantly sought a settlement, by negotiation, of the question of boundary; that an envoy was dispatched to Mexico for that purpose, and that, up to the most recent dates, said envoy had not been received by the actual Mexican government, if indeed he has not received his passports and left the republic. In the mean time I have been ordered to occupy the country up to the left bank of the Rio Grande, until the boundary shall be definitely settled. In carrying out these instructions, I have carefully abstained from all acts of hostility, obeying, in this regard, not only the letter of my instructions, but the plain dictates of justice and humanity.

The instructions under which I am acting will not permit me to retrograde from the position I now occupy. In view of the relations between our respective governments, and the individual suffering which may result, I regret the alternative which you offer; but, at the same time, wish it understood that I shall by no means avoid such alternative, leaving the responsibility with those who rashly commence hostilities. In conclusion, you will permit me to give the assurance that on my part the laws and customs of war among civilized nations shall be carefully observed.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR.

Senor General D. PEDRO DE AMPUDIA.

DIVISION OF THE NORTH, *Second General-in-chief.*

From various sources worthy of confidence, I have learned that some vessels bound for the mouth of the river have not been able to effect an entrance into that port, in consequence of your orders that they should be conducted to Brazos Santiago.

The cargo of one of them is composed in great part, and of the other entirely, of provisions which the contractors charged with providing for the army under my orders had procured to fulfil the obligations of their contracts.

You have taken possession of these provisions by force, and against the will of the proprietors, one of whom is vice-consul of her Catholic majesty, and the other of her Britannic majesty; and whose rights, in place of being religiously respected, as was proffered, and as was to be hoped from the observance of the principles which govern among civilized nations, have, on the contrary, been violated in the most extraordinary manner, opposed to the guarantee and respect due to private property.

Nothing can have authorized you in such a course. The commerce of nations is not suspended or interrupted, except in consequence of a solemn declaration of blockade, communicated and established in the form prescribed by international law. Nevertheless, you have infringed these rules, and, by an act which can never be viewed favorably to the United States government, have hindered the entrance to a Mexican port of vessels bound to it, under the confidence that commerce would not be interrupted. My duties do not allow me to consent to this new species of hostility, and they constrain me to require of you, not only that the vessels taken by force to Brazos Santiago, shall be at liberty to return to the mouth of the river, but the restoration of all the provisions which, besides belonging to private contractors, were destined for the troops on this frontier. I consider it useless to inculcate the justice of this demand, and the results which may follow an unlooked-for refusal.

I have also understood that two Mexicans, carried down in a boat by the current of the river, near one of the advanced posts of your camp, were detained, after being fired upon, and that they are still kept and treated as prisoners. The individuals in question do not belong to the army, and this circumstance exempts them from the laws of war. I therefore hope, that you will place them absolutely at liberty, as I cannot be persuaded that you pretend to extend to persons not military the consequences of an invasion, which, without employing this means of rigor against unarmed citizens, is marked in itself with the seal of universal reprobation.

I avail myself of this opportunity to assure you of my distinguished consideration.

God and Liberty! *Matamoras, April 22, 1846.*

PEDRO DE AMPUDIA.

Sr. Gen. Don Z. TAYLOR.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp near Matamoras, Texas, April 22, 1846.

SIR:—I have had the honor to receive your communication of this date, in which you complain of certain measures adopted by my orders to close the mouth of the Rio Bravo against vessels bound to Matamoras, and in which you also advert to the case of two Mexicans, supposed to be detained as prisoners in this camp.

After all that has passed since the American army first approached the Rio Bravo, I am certainly surprised that you should complain of a measure which is no other than a natural result of the state of war so much insisted upon by the Mexican authorities as actually existing at this time. You will excuse me for recalling a few circumstances to show that this state of war has not been sought by the American army, but has been forced upon it, and that the exercise of the rights incident to such a state cannot be made a subject of complaint.

On breaking up my camp at Corpus Christi, and moving forward with the army under my orders, to occupy the left bank of the Rio Bravo, it was my earnest desire to execute my instructions in a pacific manner; to observe the

utmost regard for the personal rights of all citizens residing on the left bank of the river, and to take care that the religion and customs of the people should suffer no violation. With this view, and to quiet the minds of the inhabitants, I issued orders to the army, enjoining a strict observance of the rights and interests of all Mexicans residing on the river, and caused said orders to be translated into Spanish, and circulated in the several towns on the Bravo. These orders announced the spirit in which we proposed to occupy the country, and I am proud to say, that up to this moment the same spirit has controlled the operations of the army. On reaching the Arroyo Colorado, I was informed by a Mexican officer, that the order in question had been received in Matamoras; but was told at the same time that if I attempted to cross the river, it would be regarded as a declaration of war. Again, on my march to Frontone, I was met by a deputation of the civil authorities of Matamoras, protesting against my occupation of a portion of the department of Tamaulipas, and declaring that, if the army was not at once withdrawn, war would result. While this communication was in my hands, it was discovered that the village of Frontone had been set on fire and abandoned. I viewed this as a direct act of war, and informed the deputation that their communication would be answered by me when opposite Matamoras, which was done in respectful terms. On reaching the river, I dispatched an officer, high in rank, to convey to the commanding general in Matamoras, the expression of my desire for amicable relations, and my willingness to leave open to the use of the citizens of Matamoras the port of Brazos Santiago, until the question of boundary should be definitely settled. This officer received for reply, from the officer selected to confer with him, that my advance to the Rio Bravo was considered as a veritable act of war, and he was absolutely refused an interview with the American consul, in itself an act incompatible with a state of peace.

Notwithstanding these repeated assurances on the part of the Mexican authorities, and notwithstanding the most obviously hostile preparations on the right bank of the river, accompanied by a rigid non-intercourse, I carefully abstained from any act of hostility, determined that the onus of producing an actual state of hostilities should not rest with me. Our relations remained in this state until I had the honor to receive your note of the 12th instant, in which you denounce war as an alternative of my remaining in this position. As I could not, under my instructions, recede from my position, I accepted the alternative you offered me, and made all my dispositions to meet it suitably. But, still willing to adopt milder measures before proceeding to others, I contented myself in the first instance with ordering a blockade of the mouth of the Rio Bravo, by the naval forces under my orders—a proceeding perfectly consonant with the state of war so often declared to exist, and which you acknowledge in your note of the 16th instant, relative to the late Colonel Cross. If this measure seems oppressive, I wish it borne in mind that it has been forced upon me by the course you have seen fit to adopt. I have reported this blockade to my government, and shall not remove it until I receive instructions to that effect, unless indeed you desire an armistice pending the final settlement of the question between the governments, or until war shall be formally declared by either, in which case I shall cheerfully open the river. In regard to the consequences you mention as resulting from a refusal to remove the blockade, I beg you to understand that I am prepared for them, be they what they may.

In regard to the particular vessels referred to in your communication, I have the honor to advise you that, in pursuance of my orders, two American schooners, bound for Matamoras, were warned off on the 17th instant, when near the mouth of the river, and put to sea, returning probably to New Orleans. They were not seized, or their cargoes disturbed in any way, nor have they been in the harbor of Brazos Santiago to my knowledge. A Mexican schooner, understood to be the "Juanita," was in or off that harbor when my instructions to blockade the

river were issued, but was driven to sea in a gale, since which time I have had no report concerning her. Since the receipt of your communication, I have learned that two persons, sent to the mouth of the river to procure information respecting this vessel, proceeded thence to Brazos Santiago, where they were taken up and detained by the officer in command, until my orders could be received. I shall order their immediate release. A letter from one of them to the Spanish vice-consul is respectfully transmitted herewith.

In relation to the Mexicans said to have drifted down the river in a boat, and to be prisoners at this time in my camp, I have the pleasure to inform you that no such persons have been taken prisoners or are now detained by my authority. The boat in question was carried down empty by the current of the river, and drifted ashore near one of our pickets, and was secured by the guard. Some time afterwards an attempt was made to recover the boat under the cover of the darkness; the individuals concerned were hailed by the guard, and, failing to answer, were fired upon as a matter of course. What became of them is not known, as no trace of them could be discovered on the following morning. The officer of the Mexican guard, directly opposite, was informed next day that the boat would be returned on proper application to me, and I have now only to repeat that assurance.

In conclusion, I take leave to state that I consider the tone of your communication highly exceptionable, where you stigmatize the movement of the army under my orders as "marked with the seal of universal reprobation." You must be aware that such language is not respectful in itself, either to me or my government; and while I observe in my own correspondence the courtesy due to your high position, and to the magnitude of the interests with which we are respectively charged, I shall expect the same in return.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

Sr. Gen. D. PEDRO DE AMPUDIA, *commanding in Matamoras.*

(*Address of Arista to the Foreigners in the American Army.*)

HEADQUARTERS AT MATAMORAS, *April 20, 1846.*

SOLDIERS!—You have enlisted in time of peace to serve in that army for a specific term; but your obligation never implied that you were bound to violate the laws of God, and the most sacred rights of friends! The United States government, contrary to the wishes of a majority of all honest and honorable Americans, has ordered you to take *forcible* possession of the territory of a *friendly* neighbor, who has never given her consent to such occupation. In other words, while the treaty of peace and commerce between Mexico and the United States is in full force, the United States, presuming on her strength and prosperity, and on our supposed imbecility and cowardice, attempts to make you the blind instruments of her unholy and mad ambition, and *force* you to appear as the hateful robbers of our dear homes, and the unprovoked violators of our dearest feelings as men and patriots. Such villainy and outrage, I know, is perfectly repugnant to the noble sentiments of any gentleman, and it is base and foul to rush you on to certain death, in order to aggrandize a few lawless individuals, in defiance of the laws of God and man!

It is to no purpose if they tell you, that the law for the annexation of Texas justifies your occupation of the Rio Bravo del Norte; for by this act they rob us of a great part of Tamaulipas, Coahuila, Chihuahua, and New Mexico; and it is barbarous to send a handful of men on such an errand against a powerful and warlike nation. Besides, the most of you are Europeans, and we are the *declared friends* of a majority of the nations of *Europe*. The North Americans are ambitious, overbearing, and insolent as a nation, and they will only make

use of you as vile tools to carry out their abominable plans of pillage and rapine.

I warn you in the name of justice, honor, and your own interests and self-respect, to abandon their desperate and unholy cause, and become *peaceful Mexican citizens*. I guaranty you, in such case, a half-section of land, or three hundred and twenty acres, to settle upon, gratis. Be wise, then, and just and honorable, and take no part in murdering us who have no unkind feelings for you. Lands shall be given to officers, sergeants, and corporals, according to rank, privates receiving three hundred and twenty acres, as stated.

If in time of action you wish to espouse our cause, throw away your arms and run to us, and we will embrace you as true friends and Christians. It is not decent nor prudent to say more. But should any of you render important service to Mexico, you shall be accordingly considered and preferred.

M. ARISTA,

Commander-in-chief of the Mexican Army.

The communication between General Taylor's fortified camp opposite Matamoras, and Point Isabel was interrupted by the Mexicans. Entertaining fears for the safety of Point Isabel he left 300 men at Fort Brown with orders to defend it to the last extremity, and with the main body of his army, about 2300 men, he marched on the 1st of May to open the communication with Point Isabel—returning he was met by the Mexican forces, 6000 strong, on the 8th and 9th May.—and the two remarkable battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma were fought; the beginning of a series of successes which have scarcely a parallel in history.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp near Matamoras, Texas, May 16, 1846.

SIR:—I have now the honor to submit a more detailed report of the action of the 8th instant.

The main body of the Army of Occupation marched under my immediate orders from Point Isabel, on the evening of the 7th May, and bivouacked seven miles from that place.

Our march was resumed the following morning. About noon, when our advance of cavalry had reached the water-hole of "Palo Alto," the Mexican troops were reported in our front, and were soon discovered occupying the road in force. I ordered a halt on reaching the water, with a view to rest and refresh the men, and form deliberately our line of battle. The Mexican line was now plainly visible across the prairie, and about three-quarters of a mile distant. Their left, which was composed of a heavy force of cavalry, occupied the road resting upon a thicket of chapparel, while masses of infantry were discovered in succession on the right, greatly outnumbering our own force.

Our line of battle was now formed in the following order, commencing on the extreme right: fifth infantry, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel McIntosh; Major Ringgold's artillery; third infantry, commanded by Captain L. M. Morris; two eighteen-pounders, commanded by Lieutenant Churchill, third artillery; fourth infantry, commanded by Major G. W. Allen; the third and fourth regiments composed the third brigade, under command of Lieutenant-colonel Garland, and all the above corps, together with two squadrons of dragoons, under Captains Ker and May, composed the right wing, under the orders of Colonel Twiggs. The left was formed by the battalion of artillery, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Childs, Captain Duncan's light artillery, and the eighth infantry, under Captain Montgomery, all forming the first brigade under command of Lieutenant-colonel Belknap. The train was parked near the water, under directions of Captains Crossman and Myers, and protected by Captain Ker's squadron.

About 2 o'clock, we took up the march by heads of columns in the direction of the enemy, the eighteen-pounder battery following the road. While the other columns were advancing, Lieutenant Blake, Topographical Engineers, volunteered a reconnoissance of the enemy's line, which was handsomely performed, and resulted in the discovery of at least two batteries of artillery in the intervals of their cavalry and infantry. These batteries were soon opened upon us, when I ordered the columns halted and deployed into line, and the fire to be returned by all our artillery. The eighth infantry, on our extreme left, was thrown back to secure that flank. The first fires of the enemy did little execution, while our eighteen-pounders and Major Ringgold's artillery soon dispersed the cavalry which formed his left. Captain Duncan's battery, thrown forward in advance of the line, was doing good execution at this time. Captain May's squadron was now detached to support that battery and the left of our position. The Mexican cavalry, with two pieces of artillery, were now reported to be moving through the chapparel to our right, to threaten that flank, or make a demonstration against the train. The fifth infantry was immediately detached to check this movement, and, supported by Lieutenant Ridgely, with a section of Major Ringgold's battery, and Captain Walker's company of volunteers, effectually repulsed the enemy—the fifth infantry repelling a charge of lancers, and the artillery doing great execution in their ranks. The third infantry was now detached to the right, as a still further security to that flank, yet threatened by the enemy. Major Ringgold, with the remaining section, kept up his fire from an advanced position, and was supported by the left infantry.

The grass of the prairie had been accidentally fired by our artillery, and the volumes of smoke now partially concealed the armies from each other. As the enemy's left had evidently been driven back, and left the road free, and as the cannonade had been suspended, I ordered forward the eighteen pounders on the road nearly to the position first occupied by the Mexican cavalry, and caused the first brigade to take up a new position, still on the left of the eighteen-pounder battery. The fifth was advanced from its former position, and occupied a point on the extreme right of the new line. The enemy made a change of position corresponding to our own, and after a suspension of nearly an hour, the action was resumed.

The fire of artillery was now most destructive; openings were constantly made through the enemy's ranks by our fire, and the constancy with which the Mexican infantry sustained this severe cannonade was a theme of universal remark and admiration. Captain May's squadron was detached to make a demonstration on the left of the enemy's position, and suffered severely from the fire of artillery, to which it was for some time exposed.

The fourth infantry, which had been ordered to support the eighteen-pounder battery, was exposed to a most galling fire of artillery, by which several men were killed, and Captain Page dangerously wounded. The enemy's fire was directed against our eighteen-pounder battery, and the guns under Major Ringgold in its vicinity. The major himself, while coolly directing the fire of his pieces, was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded.

In the mean time, the battalion under Lieutenant-colonel Childs had been brought up to support the artillery on our right. A strong demonstration of cavalry was now made by the enemy against this part of our line, and the column continued to advance under a severe fire from the eighteen pounders. The battalion was instantly formed in square, and held ready to receive the charge of cavalry, but when the advancing squadrons were within close range, a deadly fire of canister from the eighteen pounders dispersed them. A brisk fire of small arms was now opened upon the square, by which one officer (Lieutenant Luther, second artillery) was slightly wounded; but a well-directed volley from the front of the square silenced all further firing from the enemy in this quarter. It was now nearly dark, and the action was closed on the right of

our line, the enemy having been completely driven back from his position, and foiled in every attempt against it.

While the above was going forward on our right, and under our own eye, the enemy had made a serious attempt against the left of our line. Captain Duncan instantly perceived the movement, and, by the bold and brilliant manœuvring of his battery, completely repulsed several successive efforts of the enemy to advance in force upon our left flank. Supported in succession by the eighth infantry, and by Captain Ker's squadron of dragoons, he gallantly held the enemy at bay, and finally drove him, with immense loss, from the field. The action here and along the whole line continued until dark, when the enemy retired into the chapparel, in rear of his position.

Our loss this day was nine killed, forty-four wounded, and two missing. Among the wounded were Major Ringgold, who has since died, and Captain Page dangerously wounded, Lieutenant Luther slightly so. I annex a tabular statement of the casualties of the day.

Our own force engaged is shown by the field-report, herewith transmitted, to have been one hundred and seventy-seven officers, and two thousand one hundred and eleven men; aggregate, two thousand two hundred and eighty-eight. The Mexican force, according to the statements of their own officers, taken prisoners in the affair of the 9th, was not less than six thousand regular troops, with ten pieces of artillery, and probably exceeded that number—the irregular force not known. Their loss was not less than two hundred killed, and four hundred wounded—probably greater. This estimate is very moderate, and formed upon the number actually counted on the field, and upon the reports of their own officers.

As already reported in my first brief dispatch, the conduct of our officers and men was everything that could be desired. Exposed for hours to the severest trial—a cannonade of artillery—our troops displayed a coolness and constancy which gave me throughout the assurance of victory.

I purposely defer the mention of individuals, until my report of the action of the 9th, when I will endeavor to do justice to the many instances of distinguished conduct on both days. In the mean time, I refer for more minute details to the reports of individual commanders. I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant.

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brig. Gen. U. S. A. Commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, Washington.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION, *Camp at Resaca de la Palma,*

3 miles from Matamoras, 10 o'clock, P. M., May 9, 1846.

SIR:—I have the honor to report that I marched with the main body of the army at two o'clock to-day, having previously thrown forward a body of light infantry into the forest which covers the Matamoras road. When near the spot where I am now encamped, my advance discovered that a ravine crossing the road had been occupied by the enemy with artillery. I immediately ordered a battery of field artillery to sweep the position, flanking and sustaining it by the 3d, 4th, and 5th regiments, deployed as skirmishes to the right and left. A heavy fire of artillery and of musketry was kept up for some time, until finally the enemy's batteries were carried in succession by a squadron of dragoons and the regiments of infantry that were on the ground. He was soon driven from his position, and pursued by a squadron of dragoons, battalion of artillery, 3d infantry, and a light battery, to the river. Our victory has been complete. Eight pieces of artillery, with a great quantity of ammunition, three standards, and some one hundred prisoners have been taken; among the latter, General La Vega, and several other officers. One general is understood to have been killed.

The enemy has recrossed the river, and I am sure will not again molest us on this bank.

The loss of the enemy in killed has been most severe. Our own has been very heavy, and I deeply regret to report that Lieutenant Inge, 2d dragoons, Lieutenant Cochrane, 4th infantry, and Lieutenant Chadbourne, 8th infantry, were killed on the field. Lieutenant-Colonel Payne, 4th artillery, Lieutenant-Colonel McIntosh, Lieutenant Dobbins, 3d infantry; Captain Hooe and Lieutenant Fowler, 5th infantry, and Captain Montgomery, Lieutenants Gates, Selden, McClay, Burbank and Jordan, 8th infantry, were wounded. The extent of our loss in killed and wounded is not yet ascertained, and is reserved for a more detailed report.

The affair of to-day may be regarded as a proper supplement to the cannonade of yesterday; and the two taken together, exhibit the coolness and gallantry of our officers and men in the most favorable light. All have done their duty, and done it nobly. It will be my pride, in a more circumstantial report of both actions, to dwell upon particular instances of individual distinction.

It affords me peculiar pleasure to report that the field work opposite Matamoras has sustained itself handsomely during a cannonade and bombardment of one hundred and sixty hours. But the pleasure is alloyed with profound regret at the loss of its heroic and indomitable commander, Major Brown, who died to-day from the effect of a shell. His loss would be a severe one to the service at any time, but to the army under my orders, it is indeed irreparable. One officer and one non-commissioned officer killed, and ten men wounded, comprise all the casualties incident to this severe bombardment.

I inadvertently omitted to mention the capture of a large number of pack-mules left in the Mexican camp.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Brevet Brigadier-General U. S. A. commanding.

The ADJUTANT-GENERAL of the Army, Washington, D. C.

The Mexican General Arista's account of the Battle of Palo Alto.

GENERAL-IN-CHIEF,

MOST EXCELLENT SIR:—Constant in my purpose of preventing General Taylor from uniting the forces which he brought from the Fronton of Sante Isabel, with those which he left fortified opposite Matamoras, I moved this day from the Fanques del Raminero, whence I dispatched my last extraordinary courier, and took the direction of Palo Alto, as soon as my spies informed me that the enemy had left Fronton, with the determination of introducing into his fort wagons loaded with provisions and heavy artillery.

I arrived opposite Palo Alto about one o'clock, and observed that the enemy was entering that position.

With all my forces, I established the line of battle in a great plain, my right resting upon an elevation, and my left on a slough of difficult passage.

Scarcely was the first cannon fired, when there arrived General Pedro de Ampudia, second in command, whom I had ordered to join me after having covered the points which might serve to besiege the enemy in the forts opposite Matamoras.

The forces under my orders amounted to 3000 men, and twelve pieces of artillery; those of the invaders were 3000, rather less than more, and were superior in artillery, since they had twenty pieces of the calibre of sixteen and eighteen pounds.

The battle commenced so ardently, that the fire of cannon did not cease a single moment. In the course of it, the enemy wished to follow the road towards Matamoras, to raise the siege of his troops; with which object he fired the

grass, and formed in front of his line of battle a smoke so thick, that he succeeded in covering himself from our view, but by means of manœuvres this was twice embarrassed.

General Taylor maintained his attack rather defensively than offensively, employing his best arm, which is artillery, protected by half of the infantry, and all of his cavalry,—keeping the remainder fortified in the ravine, about two thousand yards from the field of battle.

I was anxious for the charge, because the fire of cannon did much damage in our ranks, and I instructed General D. Anastasio Torrejon to execute it with the greater part of the cavalry, by our left flank, while one should be executed at the same time by our right flank, with some columns of infantry, and the remainder of that arm [cavalry].

I was waiting the moment when that general should execute the charge, and the effect of it should begin to be seen, in order to give the impulse on the right; but he was checked by fire of the enemy, which defended a slough that embarrassed the attack.

Some battalions, becoming impatient by the loss which they suffered, fell into disorder, demanding to advance or fall back. I immediately caused them to charge with a column of cavalry, under the command of Colonel D. Cayetano Montero; the result of this operation being that the dispersed corps repaired their fault as far as possible, marching towards the enemy who, in consequence of his distance, was enabled to fall back upon his reserve, and night coming on, the battle was concluded—the field remaining for our arms.

Every suitable measure was then adopted, and the division took up a more concentrated curve in the same scene of action.

The combat was long and bloody, which may be estimated from the calculations made by the commandant-general of artillery, General D. Thomas Requena, who assures me that the enemy threw about three thousand cannon-shots from two in the afternoon, when the battle commenced, until seven at night, when it terminated,—six hundred and fifty being fired on our side.

The national arms shone forth, since they did not yield a hand's-breadth of ground, notwithstanding the superiority in artillery of the enemy, who suffered much damage.

Our troops have to lament the loss of two hundred and fifty-two men, dispersed, wounded and killed—the last worthy of national recollection and gratitude for the intrepidity with which they died fighting for the most sacred of causes.

Will your excellency please with this note to report to his excellency the President, representing to him that I will take care to give a circumstantial account of this deed of arms; and recommending to him the good conduct of all the generals, chiefs, officers and soldiers, under my orders, for sustaining so bloody a combat, which does honor to our arms, and exhibits their discipline.

Accept the assurances of my consideration and great regard.

God and Liberty!

HEAD-QUARTERS, PALO ALTO, *in sight of the enemy*, May 8th, 1846.

MARIANO ARISTA.

MOST EXCELLENT SIR, Minister of War and Marine.

The confidence of the Mexicans previous to the battle of Palo Alto is exhibited in the following extract, from the Bulletin of the Northern Division:

“So rapid is the fire of our guns, that *the batteries of the enemy have been silenced*. But what is most worthy of notice, as showing the great enthusiasm of this place, is the fact that many of the inhabitants of both sexes, in the hottest of the cannonade, remained firm in front of the enemy, filled with enthusiasm; in-

deed, fear is always unknown to those whose mission it is to avenge an outrage upon the sacred right of their beloved country.

“From our account of the war, the world will judge of the great superiority of our troops, in courage as well as skill, over the Americans. It is indeed wonderful to witness the dismay of the enemy; rare is the occurrence when an American ventures outside of the breastworks. There can be no doubt of this, that the Mexicans will be considered by foreign nations as the very emblems of patriotism. How evident that they inherit the blood of the noble sons of Pelayo! Happy they who have met with so glorious a death, in defending the territory bequeathed to them by their fathers!

“The nation with which we are at war is most savage in its proceedings; no regard being paid to the flags of friendly nations; even those usages and customs respected by civilized nations, to divest war of some of its horrors, have been shamefully disregarded. The enemy have fired red shot against this innocent city, and we publish it to the world in proof that, with all their boasted wisdom and liberty, they are unworthy of being counted among enlightened nations.

“His excellency, the general-in-chief of the northern division, and his intrepid soldiers, are ready to fight the enemy in any numbers, and we are certain that our arms will be successful; but the nation against whom we have to contend is excessively proud; and it is also possessed of resources which may perhaps surpass those within our reach. Let us then make an immense effort to repel their aggressions. Let us contribute everything most dear to us—our persons, our means—to save our country from its present danger. Let us oppose to the unbridled ambition of the Anglo-American that patriotic enthusiasm so peculiar to us. Indeed, we need only follow the glorious example of Matamoros, that noble city, which will be known in future by the name of Heroic. Its inhabitants have emulated the examples of Menamia and Saguntum; they have determined to die at the foot of the eagle of Anahuac, defend their fort whilst they retain the breath of life—this plan is settled. The supreme government is making strenuous exertions in order to protect the territory placed under its care by the nation, and nothing is now wanting but for the people to rush in a mass to the frontier, and the independence of Mexico is safe.”

General Arista's Summons to the Commandant of Fort Brown.

MEXICAN ARMY, DIVISION OF THE NORTH, *General-in-chief.*

You are besieged by forces sufficient to take you, and there is, moreover, a numerous division encamped near you which, free from other cares, will keep off any succors which you may expect to receive.

The respect for humanity acknowledged at the present age by all civilized nations, doubtless imposes upon me the duty of mitigating the disasters of war.

This principle, which Mexicans observe above all other nations, obliges me to summon you, as all your efforts will be useless, to surrender, in order to avoid, by a capitulation, the entire destruction of all the soldiers under your command.

You will thus afford me the pleasure of complying with the mild and benevolent wishes above expressed, which distinguish the character of my countrymen, whilst I at the same time fulfil the most imperious of the duties which my country requires for the offences committed against it.

God and Liberty!

Headquarters at the Fauques del Raminero, May 6th, 1846.

MARIANO ARISTA.

HEADQUARTERS, U. S. FORCES,
Near Matamoras, May 9th, 1846, 5 P. M.

SIR: Your humane communication has just been received, and, after the consideration due to its importance, I must respectfully decline to surrender my forces to you.

The exact purport of your dispatch I cannot feel confident that I understood, as my interpreter is not skilled in your language; but if I have understood you correctly, you have my reply above.

I am, sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,
E. S. HAWKINS,
Commanding U. S. forces opposite Matamoras.
Gen. M. ARISTA, Commanding Division of the North.

STORMING OF MONTEREY—GEN. TAYLOR'S REPORT.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Camp near Monterey, Oct. 9th, 1846.

SIR: I have now the honor to submit a detailed report of the recent operations before Monterey, resulting in the capitulation of that city.

The information received on the route from Seralvo, and particularly the continual appearance in our front of the Mexican cavalry, which had a slight skirmish with our advance at the village of Ramas, induced the belief, as we approached Monterey, that the enemy would defend that place. Upon reaching the neighborhood of the city on the morning of the 19th of September, this belief was fully confirmed. It was ascertained that he occupied the town in force; that a large work had been constructed commanding all the northern approaches; and that the Bishop's Palace, and some heights in its vicinity near the Saltillo road, had also been fortified, and occupied with troops and artillery. It was known, from information previously received, that the eastern approaches were commanded by several small works in the lower edge of the city.

The configuration of the heights and gorges in the direction of the Saltillo road as visible from the point attained by our advance on the morning of the 19th, led me to suspect that it was practicable to turn all the works in that direction, and thus cut off the enemy's line of communication. After establishing my camp at the "Walnut Springs," three miles from Monterey, the nearest suitable position, it was, accordingly, my first care to order a close reconnoissance of the ground in question, which was executed on the evening of the 19th, by the engineer officers under the direction of Major Mansfield. A reconnoissance of the eastern approaches was at the same time made by Captain Williams, Topographical Engineers. The examination made by Major Mansfield proved the entire practicability of throwing forward a column to the Saltillo road, and thus turning the position of the enemy. Deeming this to be an operation of essential importance, orders were given to Brevet-Brigadier General Worth, commanding the second division, to march with his command on the 20th; to turn the hill of the Bishop's Palace: to occupy a position on the Saltillo road, and to carry the enemy's detached works in that quarter, where practicable. The first regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, under command of Colonel Hays, was associated with the second division on this service. Captain Sanders, Engineers, and Lieutenant Meade, Topographical Engineers, were also ordered to report to General Worth for duty with his column.

At two o'clock P. M. on the 20th, the 2d division took up its march. It was soon discovered, by officers who were reconnoitering the town, and communicated to General Worth, that its movement had been perceived, and that the enemy was throwing reinforcements towards the Bishop's Palace, and the height which commands it. To divert his attention as far as practicable, the first divi-

sion, under Brigadier-General Twiggs, and field division of volunteers, under Major-General Butler, were displayed in front of the town until dark. Arrangements were made at the same time to place in battery, during the night, at a suitable distance from the enemy's main work, the citadel, two 24-pounder howitzers, and a 10-inch mortar, with a view to open a fire on the following day, when I proposed to make a diversion in favor of General Worth's movement. The 4th infantry covered this battery during the night. General Worth had in the meantime reached and occupied, for the night, a defensive position just without range of a battery above the Bishop's Palace, having made a reconnaissance as far as the Saltillo road.

Before proceeding to report the operations of the 21st and the following days, I beg leave to state that I shall mention in detail only those which were conducted against the eastern extremity of the city, or elsewhere, under my immediate direction, referring you for the particulars of General Worth's operations, which were entirely detached, to his own full report transmitted herewith.

Early on the morning of the 21st, I received a note from General Worth, written at half past nine o'clock the night before, suggesting what I had already intended, a strong diversion against the centre and left of the town, to favor his enterprise against the heights in rear. The infantry and artillery of the 1st division, and the field division of volunteers, were ordered under arms, and took the direction of the city, leaving one company of each regiment as a camp guard. The 2d dragoons, under Lieutenant-Colonel May, and Colonel Woods' regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, under the immediate direction of General Henderson, were directed to the right to support General Worth, if necessary, and to make an impression, if practicable, upon the upper quarter of the city. Upon approaching the mortar battery, the 1st and 3d regiments of infantry, and battalion of Baltimore and Washington volunteers, with Captain Bragg's field battery—the whole under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Garland—were directed towards the lower part of the town, with orders to make a strong demonstration, and carry one of the enemy's advanced works, if it could be done without too heavy loss. Major Mansfield, Engineers, and Captain Williams and Lieutenant Pope, Topographical Engineers, accompanied this column, Major Mansfield being charged with its direction, and the designation of points of attack.

In the meantime, the mortar, served by Captain Ramsay, of the ordnance, and the howitzer battery under Captain Webster, 1st artillery, had opened their fire upon the citadel, which was deliberately sustained, and answered from the work. General Butler's division had now taken up a position in rear of this battery, when the discharges of artillery, mingled finally with a rapid fire of small arms, showed that Lieutenant Garland's command had become warmly engaged. I now deemed it necessary to support this attack, and accordingly ordered the 4th infantry, and three regiments of General Butler's division, to march at once, by the left flank, in the direction of the advanced work at the lower extremity of the town, leaving one regiment (1st Kentucky) to cover the mortar and howitzer battery. By some mistake, two companies of the 4th infantry did not receive this order, and, consequently, did not join the advance companies until some time afterwards.

Lieutenant-Colonel Garland's command had approached the town in a direction to the right of the advanced work (No. 1), at the north-eastern angle of the city, and the engineer officer, covered by skirmishers, had succeeded in entering the suburbs and gaining cover. The remainder of this command now advanced and entered the town under a heavy fire of artillery from the citadel and the works on the left, and of musketry from the houses and small works in front. A movement to the right was attempted, with a view to gain the rear of No. 1, and carry that work, but the troops were so much exposed to a fire which

they could not effectually return, and had already sustained such severe loss, particularly in officers, that it was deemed best to withdraw them to a more secure position. Captain Backus, 1st infantry, however, with a portion of his own and other companies, had gained the roof of a tannery, which looked directly into the gorge of No. 1, and from which he poured a most destructive fire into that work and upon the strong building in its rear. This fire happily coincided in point of time with the advance of a portion of the volunteer division upon No. 1, and contributed largely to the fall of that strong and important work.

The three regiments of the volunteer division, under the immediate command of Major-General Butler, had in the meantime advanced in the direction of No. 1. The leading brigade, under Brigadier-General Quitman, continued its advance upon that work, preceded by three companies of the 4th infantry, while General Butler, with the 1st Ohio regiment, entered the town to the right. The companies of the 4th infantry had advanced within short range of the work, when they were received by a fire that almost in one moment struck down one-third of the officers and men, and rendered it necessary to retire and effect a conjunction with the two other companies then advancing. General Quitman's brigade, though suffering most severely, particularly in the Tennessee regiment, continued its advance, and finally carried the work in handsome style, as well as the strong building in its rear. Five pieces of artillery, a considerable supply of ammunition, and thirty prisoners, including three officers, fell into our hands.

Major-General Butler, with the 1st Ohio regiment, after entering the edge of the town, discovered that nothing was to be accomplished in his front, and at this point, yielding to the suggestions of several officers, I ordered a retrograde movement; but learning almost immediately from one of my staff that the battery No. 1 was in our possession, the order was countermanded, and I determined to hold the battery and defences already gained. General Butler, with the 1st Ohio regiment, then entered the town at a point further to the left, and marched in the direction of the battery No. 2. While making an examination with a view to ascertain the possibility of carrying this second work by storm, the general was wounded and soon after compelled to quit the field. As the strength of No. 2, and the heavy musketry fire flanking the approach, rendered it impossible to carry it without great loss, the 1st Ohio regiment was withdrawn from the town.

Fragments of the various regiments engaged were now under cover of the captured battery and some buildings in its front, and on the right. The field battery of Captains Bragg and Ridgely was also partially covered by the battery. An incessant fire was kept on this position from battery No. 2, and other works on its right, and from the citadel on all our approaches. General Twiggs, though quite unwell, joined me at this point, and was instrumental in causing the artillery captured from the enemy to be placed in battery, and served by Captain Ridgely, against No. 2, until the arrival of Captain Webster's howitzer battery, which took its place. In the meantime, I directed such men as could be collected of the 1st, 3d, and 4th regiments and Baltimore battalion, to enter the town, penetrating to the right, and carry the 2d battery if possible. This command, under Lieutenant-Colonel Garland, advanced beyond the bridge "Purissima," when, finding it impracticable to gain the rear of the 2d battery, a portion of it sustained themselves for some time in that advanced position; but as no permanent impression could be made at that point, and the main object of the general operation had been effected, the command, including a section of Captain Ridgely's battery, which had joined it, was withdrawn to battery No. 1. During the absence of this column, a demonstration of cavalry was reported in the direction of the citadel. Captain Bragg, who was at hand, immediately galloped with his battery to a suitable position, from which a few discharges effectually dispersed the enemy. Captain Miller, 1st infantry, was dispatched

with a mixed command to support the battery on this service. The enemy's lancers had previously charged upon the Ohio and a part of the Mississippi regiments, near some fields at a distance from the edge of the town, and had been repulsed with considerable loss. A demonstration of cavalry on the opposite side of the river was also dispersed in the course of the afternoon by Captain Ridgely's battery, and the squadrons returned to the city. At the approach of evening all the troops that had been engaged were ordered back to the camp, except Captain Ridgely's battery and the regular infantry of the 1st division, who were detailed as a guard for the works during the night, under command of Lieutenant-Colonel Garland. One battalion of the 1st Kentucky regiment was ordered to reinforce this command. Intrenching tools were procured, and additional strength was given to the works, and protection to the men, by working-parties during the night, under the direction of Lieutenant Scarritt, Engineers.

The main object proposed in the morning had been effected. A powerful diversion had been made to favour the operations of the 2d division, one of the enemy's advanced works had been carried, and we now had a strong foothold in the town. But this had not been accomplished without a very heavy loss, embracing some of our most gallant and accomplished officers. Captain Williams, Topographical Engineers; Lieutenants Terrett and Dilworth, 1st infantry; Lieutenant Woods, 2d infantry; Captains Morris and Field, Brevet-Major Barbour, Lieutenants Irwin and Hazlitt, 3d infantry; Lieutenant Hoskins, 4th infantry; Lieutenant-Colonel Watson, Baltimore battalion; Captain Allen and Lieutenant Putnam, Tennessee regiment, and Lieutenant Hett, Ohio regiment, were killed, or have since died of wounds received in this engagement, while the number and rank of the officers wounded gives additional proof of the obstinacy of the contest, and the good conduct of our troops. The number of killed and wounded incident to the operations in the lower part of the city on the 21st is 394.

Early in the morning of this day (21st), the advance of the 2d division had encountered the enemy in force, and after a brief but sharp conflict repulsed him with heavy loss. General Worth then succeeded in gaining a position on the Saltillo road, thus cutting the enemy's line of communication. From this position the two heights south of the Saltillo road were carried in succession, and the guns taken in one of them turned upon the Bishop's Palace. These important successes were fortunately obtained with comparatively small loss: Captain McKavett, 8th infantry, being the only officer killed.

The 22d day of September passed without any active operations in the lower part of the city. The citadel and other works continued to fire at parties exposed to their range, and at the work now occupied by our troops. The guard left in it the preceding night, except Captain Ridgely's company, was relieved at mid-day by General Quitman's brigade. Captain Bragg's battery was thrown under cover in front of the town, to repel any demonstration of cavalry in that quarter. At dawn of day the height above the Bishop's Palace was carried, and soon after meridian the Palace itself was taken, and its guns turned upon the fugitive garrison. The object for which the 2d division was detached had thus been completely accomplished, and I felt confident that with a strong force occupying the road and heights in his rear, and a good position below the city in our possession, the enemy could not possibly maintain the town.

"During the night of the 22d the enemy evacuated nearly all his defences in the lower part of the city. This was reported to me early in the morning of the 23d, by General Quitman, who had already meditated an assault upon those works. I immediately sent instructions to that officer, leaving it to his discretion to enter the city, covering his men by the houses and walls, and advance carefully so far as he might deem prudent.

After ordering the remainder of the troops as a reserve, under the orders of

Brigadier-General Twiggs, I repaired to the abandoned works, and discovered that a portion of General Quitman's brigade had entered the town, and were successfully forcing their way towards the principal plaza. I then ordered up the 2d regiment of Texas mounted volunteers, who entered the city, dismounted, and, under the immediate orders of General Henderson, co-operated with General Quitman's brigade. Captain Bragg's battery was also ordered up, supported by the 3d infantry, and after firing for some time at the cathedral, a portion of it was likewise thrown into the city. Our troops advanced from house to house, and from square to square, until they reached a street but one square in rear of the principal plaza, in and near which the enemy's force was mainly concentrated. This advance was conducted vigorously, but with due caution, and although destructive to the enemy, was attended with but small loss on our part. Captain Ridgely, in the meantime, had served a captured piece in battery No. 1 against the city, until the advance of our men rendered it imprudent to fire in the direction of the cathedral. I was now satisfied that we could operate successfully in the city, and that the enemy had retired from the lower portion of it to make a stand behind his barricades. As General Quitman's brigade had been on duty the previous night, I determined to withdraw the troops to the evacuated works, and concert with General Worth a combined attack upon the town. The troops accordingly fell back deliberately, in good order, and resumed their original positions, General Quitman's brigade being relieved after nightfall by that of General Hamer. On my return to camp, I met an officer with the intelligence that General Worth, induced by the firing in the lower part of the city, was about making an attack at the upper extremity which had also been evacuated by the enemy to a considerable distance. I regretted that this information had not reached me before leaving the city, but still deemed it inexpedient to change my orders, and accordingly returned to camp. A note from General Worth, written at 11 o'clock P. M., informed me that he had advanced to within a short distance of the principal plaza, and that the mortar (which had been sent to his division in the morning) was doing good execution within effective range of the enemy's position.

Desiring to make no further attempt upon the city without complete concert as to the lines and modes of approach, I instructed that officer to suspend his advance until I could have an interview with him on the following morning, at his head-quarters.

Early in the morning of the 24th I received, through Colonel Moreno, a communication from General Ampudia, proposing to evacuate the town; which, with the answer, was forwarded with my first dispatch. I arranged with Colonel Moreno a cessation of fire until twelve o'clock, at which hour I would receive the answer of the Mexican general at General Worth's head-quarters, to which I soon repaired. In the meantime, General Ampudia had signified to General Worth his desire for a personal interview with me, to which I acceded, and which finally resulted in a capitulation, placing the town and the material of war, with certain exceptions, in our possession. A copy of that capitulation was transmitted with my first dispatch.

Upon occupying the city it was discovered to be of great strength in itself, and to have its approaches carefully and strongly fortified. The town and works were armed with forty-two pieces of cannon, well supplied with ammunition, and manned with a force of at least 7000 troops of the line, and from 2000 to 3000 irregulars. The force under my orders before Monterey, as exhibited by the accompanying return, was 425 officers, and 6220 men. Our artillery consisted of one ten inch mortar, two twenty-four pounder howitzers, and four light field batteries of four guns each—the mortar being the only piece suitable to the operations of a siege.

Our loss is twelve officers and 108 men killed; thirty-one officers and 337

men wounded. That of the enemy is not known, but is believed considerably to exceed our own.

I take pleasure in bringing to the notice of the government the good conduct of the troops, both regulars and volunteers, which has been conspicuous throughout the operations. I am proud to bear testimony to their coolness and constancy in battle, and the cheerfulness with which they have submitted to exposure and privation. To the general officers commanding divisions—Major-Generals Butler and Henderson, and Brigadier-Generals Twiggs and Worth—I must express my obligations for the efficient aid which they have rendered in their respective commands. I was unfortunately deprived, early on the 21st, of the valuable services of Major-General Butler, who was disabled by a wound received in the attack on the city. Major-General Henderson, commanding the Texan volunteers, has given me important aid in the organization of his command, and its subsequent operations. Brigadier-General Twiggs rendered important services with his division, and, as the second in command, after Major-General Butler was disabled, Brigadier-General Worth was intrusted with an important detachment, which rendered his operations independent of my own. These operations were conducted with ability, and crowned with complete success. I desire also to notice Brigadier-Generals Hamer and Quitman, commanding brigades in General Butler's division. Lieutenant-Colonels Garland and Wilson, commanding brigades in General Twiggs' division; Colonels Mitchell, Campbell, Davis, and Wood, commanding the Ohio, Tennessee, Mississippi, and 2d Texas regiments, respectively; and Majors Lear, Allen, and Abercrombie, commanding the 3d, 4th, and 1st regiments of infantry: all of whom served under my eye, and conducted their commands with coolness and gallantry against the enemy.

Colonel Mitchell, Lieutenant-Colonel M'Clung, Mississippi regiment, Major Lear, 3d infantry, and Major Alexander, Tennessee regiment, were all severely wounded, as were Captain Lamotte, 1st infantry, Lieutenant Graham, 4th infantry, Adjutant Armstrong, Ohio regiment, Lieutenants Scudder and Allen, Tennessee regiment, and Lieutenant Howard, Mississippi regiment, while leading their men against the enemy's position on the 21st and 23d. After the fall of Colonel Mitchell, the command of the 1st Ohio regiment devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Weller; that of the 3d infantry, after the fall of Major Lear, devolved in succession upon Captain Bainbridge, and Captain Henry, the former being also wounded. The following named officers have been favorably noticed by their commanders: Lieutenant-Colonel Anderson and Adjutant Heiman, Tennessee regiment; Lieutenant-Colonel M'Clung, Captains Cooper and Downing; Lieutenants Batterson, Calhoun, Moore, Russel, and Cook, Mississippi regiments; also Sergeant-Major Hearlan, Mississippi regiment, and Major Price and Captain J. R. Smith, unattached, but serving with it. I beg leave also to call attention to the good conduct of Captain Johnson, Ohio regiment, and Lieutenant Hooker, 1st artillery, serving on the staff of General Hamer, and of Lieutenant Nichols, 2d artillery, on that of General Quitman. Captains Bragg and Ridgely served with their batteries during the operations under my own observation, and in part under my immediate orders, and exhibited distinguished skill and gallantry. Captain Webster, 1st artillery, assisted by Lieutenants Donaldson and Bowen, rendered good service with the howitzer battery, which was much exposed to the enemy's fire on the 21st.

From the nature of the operations, the 2d dragoons were not brought into action, but were usefully employed, under the direction of Lieutenant-Colonel May, as escorts, and in keeping open our communications. The 1st Kentucky regiment was also prevented from participating in the action of the 21st, but rendered highly important services, under Colonel Ormsby, in covering the mortar battery, and holding in check the enemy's cavalry during the day.

I have noticed above, the officers whose conduct either fell directly under my

own immediate eye, or is noticed only in minor reports which are not forwarded. For further mention of individuals, I beg leave to refer to the reports of division commanders herewith respectfully transmitted. I fully concur in their recommendations, and desire that they may be considered as a part of my own report.

From the officers of my personal staff and of the engineers, topographical engineers, and ordnance, associated with me, I have derived valuable and efficient assistance during the operations. Colonel Whiting, assistant quartermaster-general, Colonels Croghan and Belknap, inspectors-general, Major Bliss, assistant adjutant-general, Captain Sibley, assistant quartermaster, Captain Waggaman, commissary of subsistence, Captain Eaton and Lieutenant Garnett, aids-de-camp, and Majors Kirby and Van Buren, pay department, served near my person, and were ever prompt, in all situations, in the communication of my orders and instructions. I must express my particular obligations to Brevet-Major Mansfield and Lieutenant Scarritt, corps of engineers. They both rendered most important services in reconnoitring the enemy's positions, conducting troops in attack, and strengthening the works captured from the enemy. Major Mansfield, though wounded on the 21st, remained on duty during that and the following day, until confined by his wound to camp. Captain Williams, Topographical Engineers, to my great regret and the loss of the service, was mortally wounded while fearlessly exposing himself in the attack of the 21st. Lieutenant Pope, of the same corps, was active and zealous throughout the operations. Major Munroe, chief of the artillery, Major Craig, and Captain Ramsey, of the ordnance, were assiduous in the performance of their proper duties. The former superintended the mortar-service on the 22d, as particularly mentioned in the report of General Worth, to which I also refer for the services of the engineers and topographical officers detached with the second division.

Surgeon Craig, medical director, was actively employed in the important duties of his department, and the medical staff generally were unremitting in their attentions to the numerous wounded—their duties with the regular regiments being rendered uncommonly arduous by the small number serving in the field.

I respectfully enclose herewith, in addition to the reports of division commanders, a field return of the force before Monterey on the 21st of September—a return of killed, wounded, and missing during the operations—and two topographical sketches—one exhibiting all the movements around Monterey—the other on a larger scale, illustrating more particularly the operations in the lower quarter of the city—prepared respectively by Lieutenants Mead and Pope, Topographical Engineers.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Major-General U. S. A., commanding.

The ADJUTANT-GENERAL of the Army, *Washington, D. C.*

Terms of capitulation of the city of Monterey, the capital of Nueva Leon, agreed upon by the undersigned commissioners, to wit: General Worth, of the United States army, General Henderson, of the Texan volunteers, and Colonel Davis, of the Mississippi riflemen, on the part of Major-General Taylor, Commander-in-chief of the United States forces, and General Requena and General M. Llano, Governor of Nueva Leon, on the part of Senor General Don Pedro Ampudia, commanding in chief the army of the north of Mexico.

ARTICLE I. As the legitimate result of the operations before this place, and the present position of the contending armies, it is agreed that the city, the fortifications, cannon, the munitions of war, and all other public property, with the undermentioned exceptions, be surrendered to the commanding general of the United States forces now at Monterey.

ARTICLE II. That the Mexican forces be allowed to retain the following arms, to wit: the commissioned officers their side-arms, the infantry their arms and accoutrements, the cavalry their arms and accoutrements, the artillery one field battery, not to exceed six pieces, with twenty-one rounds of ammunition.

ARTICLE III. That the Mexican armed forces retire, within seven days from this date, beyond the line formed by the pass of Rinconada, the city of Linares and San Fernando de Preras.

ARTICLE IV. That the citadel of Monterey be evacuated by the Mexican and occupied by the American forces to-morrow morning at ten o'clock.

ARTICLE V. To avoid collisions, and for mutual convenience, that the troops of the United States will not occupy the city until the Mexican forces have withdrawn, except for hospital and storage purposes.

ARTICLE VI. That the forces of the United States will not advance beyond the line specified in the 3d article, before the expiration of eight weeks, or until orders or instructions of the respective governments can be received.

ARTICLE VII. That the public property to be delivered, shall be turned over and received by officers appointed by the commanding generals of the two armies.

ARTICLE VIII. That all doubts as to the meaning of any of the preceding articles, shall be solved by an equitable construction, or on principles of liberality to the retiring army.

ARTICLE IX. That the Mexican flag, when struck at the citadel, may be saluted by its own battery.

Done at Monterey, Sept. 24, 1846.

W. J. WORTH,

Brigadier-General United States Army.

J. PINKNEY HENDERSON,

Major-General commanding the Texan Volunteers.

JEFFERSON DAVIS,

Colonel Mississippi Riflemen.

MANUEL L. LLANO,

T. REQUENA,

ORTEGA.

Approved,

Z. TAYLOR,

Major-General United States Army, commanding.

PEDRO AMPUDIA.

GENERAL SCOTT TO GENERAL TAYLOR.

NEW YORK, Nov. 25, 1846.

My Dear General: I left Washington late in the day yesterday, and expect to embark for New Orleans the 30th inst. By the 12th of December I may be in that city, at Point Isabel the 17th, and Camargo, say the 23d—in order to be within easy corresponding distance from you. It is not probable that I may be able to visit Monterey, and circumstances may prevent your coming to me. I shall much regret not having an early opportunity of felicitating you in person upon your many brilliant achievements; but we may meet somewhere in the interior of Mexico.

I am not coming, my dear general, to supersede you in the immediate command on the line of operations rendered illustrious by you and your gallant army. My proposed theatre is different. You may imagine it; and I wish very much that it were prudent, at this distance, to tell you all that I expect to attempt or hope to execute. I have been admonished that dispatches have been lost, and I have no special messenger at hand. Your imagination will be

aided by the letters of the secretary of war, conveyed by Mr. Armistead, Major Graham, and Mr. M'Lane.

But, my dear general, I shall be obliged to take from you most of the gallant officers and men (regulars and volunteers) whom you have so long and so nobly commanded. I am afraid that I shall, by imperious necessity—the approach of yellow fever on the gulf coast—reduce you, for a time, to stand on the defensive. This will be infinitely painful to you, and, for that reason, distressing to me. But I rely upon your patriotism to submit to the temporary sacrifice with cheerfulness. No man can better afford to do so. Recent victories place you on that high eminence; and I even flatter myself that any benefit that may result to me, personally, from the unequal division of troops alluded to, will lessen the pain of your consequent inactivity.

You will be aware of the recent call for nine regiments of new volunteers, including one of Texas horse. The president may soon ask for many more; and we are not without hope that Congress may add ten or twelve to the regular establishment. These, by the spring, say April, may, by the aid of large bounties, be in the field—should Mexico not earlier propose terms of accommodation; and, long before the spring (March), it is probable you will be again in force to resume offensive operations.

It was not possible for me to find time to write from Washington, as I much desired. I only received an intimation to hold myself in preparation for Mexico, on the 18th instant. Much has been done towards that end, and more remains to be executed.

Your detailed report of the operations at Monterey, and reply to the secretary's dispatch, by Lieutenant Armistead, were both received two days after I was instructed to proceed south.

In haste, I remain, my dear general, yours, faithfully,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

Major-General Z. TAYLOR, U. S. Army, commanding, &c.

BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION, *Agua Nueva*, March 6, 1847.

SIR:—I have the honor to submit a detailed report of the operations of the forces under my command which resulted in the engagement of Buena Vista, the repulse of the Mexican army, and the reoccupation of this position.

The information which reached me of the advance and concentration of a heavy Mexican force in my front, had assumed such a probable form, as to induce a special examination far beyond the reach of our pickets to ascertain its correctness. A small party of Texan spies, under Major McCullough, dispatched to the hacienda of Encarnacion, thirty miles from this, on the route to San Luis Potosi, had reported a cavalry force of unknown strength at that place. On the 20th of February, a strong reconnoissance under Lieutenant-Colonel May was dispatched to the hacienda of Heclionda, while Major McCullough made another examination of Encarnacion. The result of these expeditions left no doubt that the enemy was in large force at Encarnacion, under the orders of General Santa Anna, and that he meditated a forward movement and attack upon our position.

As the camp of Agua Nueva could be turned on either flank, and as the enemy's force was greatly superior to our own, particularly in the arm of cavalry, I determined, after much consideration, to take up a position about eleven miles in rear, and there await the attack. The army broke up its camp, and marched at noon on the 21st, encamping at the new position a little in front of the hacienda of Buena Vista. With a small force I proceeded to Saltillo, to make some necessary arrangements for the defence of the town, leaving Brigadier-General Wool in the immediate command of the troops.

Before those arrangements were completed, on the morning of the 22d, I was advised that the enemy was in sight, advancing. Upon reaching the ground it was found that his cavalry advance was in our front, having marched from Encarnacion, as we have since learned, at 11 o'clock on the day previous, and driving in a mounted force left at Agua Nueva to cover the removal of public stores. Our troops were in position, occupying a line of remarkable strength. The road at this point becomes a narrow defile, the valley on its right being rendered quite impracticable for artillery by a system of deep and impassable gullies, while on the left a succession of rugged ridges and precipitous ravines extends far back toward the mountain which bounds the valley. The features of the ground were such as nearly to paralyze the artillery and cavalry of the enemy, while his infantry could not derive all the advantage of its numerical superiority. In this position we prepared to receive him. Captain Washington's battery (4th artillery) was posted to command the road, while the 1st and 2d Illinois regiments, under Colonels Hardin and Bissel, each eight companies (to the latter of which was attached Captain Conner's company of Texas volunteers), and the 2d Kentucky, under Colonel McKee, occupied the crests of the ridges on the left and in rear. The Arkansas and Kentucky regiments of cavalry, commanded by Colonels Yell and H. Marshall, occupied the extreme left near the base of the mountain, while the Indiana brigade, under Brigadier-General Lane, (composed of the 2d and 3d regiments, under Colonels Bowles and Lane,) the Mississippi riflemen, under Colonel Davis, the squadrons of the 1st and 2d dragoons, under Captain Steen and Lieutenant-Colonel May, and the light batteries of Captains Sherman and Bragg, 3d artillery, were held in reserve.

At eleven o'clock, I received from General Santa Anna a summons to surrender at discretion, which, with a copy of my reply, I have already transmitted. The enemy still forbore his attack, evidently waiting for the arrival of his rear columns, which could be distinctly seen by our look-outs as they approached the field. A demonstration made on his left caused me to detach the 2d Kentucky regiment and a section of artillery to our right, in which position they bivouacked for the night. In the meantime the Mexican light troops had engaged ours on the extreme left (composed of parts of the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry dismounted, and a rifle battalion from the Indiana brigade, under Major Gorman, the whole commanded by Colonel Marshall), and kept up a sharp fire, climbing the mountain side, and apparently endeavouring to gain our flank. Three pieces of Captain Washington's battery had been detached to the left, and were supported by the 2d Indiana regiment. An occasional shell was thrown by the enemy into this part of our line, but without effect. The skirmishing of the light troops was kept up with trifling loss on our part until dark, when I became convinced that no serious attack would be made before the morning, and returned, with the Mississippi regiment and squadron of 2d dragoons, to Saltillo. The troops bivouacked without fires, and laid upon their arms. A body of cavalry, some 1500 strong, had been visible all day in rear of the town, having entered the valley through a narrow pass east of the city. This cavalry, commanded by General Minon, had evidently been thrown in our rear to break up and harass our retreat, and perhaps make some attempt against the town if practicable. The city was occupied by four excellent companies of Illinois volunteers, under Major Warren of the first regiment. A field-work, which commanded most of the approaches, was garrisoned by Captain Webster's company, 1st artillery, and armed with two 24-pound howitzers, while the train and head-quarter camp was guarded by two companies of Mississippi riflemen, under Captain Rogers, and a field piece commanded by Captain Shover, 3d artillery. Having made these dispositions for the protection of the rear, I proceeded on the morning of the 23d to Buena Vista, ordering forward all the other available troops. The action had commenced before my arrival on the field.

During the evening and night of the 22d the enemy had thrown a body of light troops on the mountain side, with the purpose of outflanking our left; and it was here that the action of the 23d commenced at an early hour. Our riflemen, under Colonel Marshall, who had been reinforced by three companies under Major Trail, 2d Illinois volunteers, maintained their ground handsomely against a greatly superior force, holding themselves under cover, and using their weapons with deadly effect. About eight o'clock a strong demonstration was made against the centre of our position, a heavy column moving along the road. This force was soon dispersed by a few rapid and well-directed shots from Captain Washington's battery. In the meantime the enemy was concentrating a large force of infantry and cavalry under cover of the ridges, with the obvious intention of forcing our left, which was posted on an extensive plateau. The 2d Indiana and 2d Illinois regiments formed this part of our line, the former covering three pieces of light artillery, under the orders of Captain O'Brien—Brigadier-General Lane being in the immediate command. In order to bring his men within effective range, General Lane ordered the artillery and 2d Indiana regiment forward. The artillery advanced within musket range of a heavy body of Mexican infantry, and was served against it with great effect, but without being able to check its advance. The infantry ordered to its support had fallen back in disorder, being exposed, as well as the battery, not only to a severe fire of small arms from the front, but also to a murderous cross-fire of grape and canister from a Mexican battery on the left. Captain O'Brien found it impossible to retain his position without support, but was only able to withdraw two of his pieces, all the horses and cannoneers of the third piece being killed or disabled. The 2d Indiana regiment, which had fallen back as stated, could not be rallied, and took no farther part in the action, except a handful of men, who, under its gallant colonel, Bowles, joined the Mississippi regiment, and did good service, and those fugitives who, at a later period in the day, assisted in defending the train and depot at Buena Vista. This portion of our line having given way, and the enemy appearing in overwhelming force against our left flank, the light troops which had rendered such good service on the mountain were compelled to withdraw, which they did, for the most part, in good order. Many, however, were not rallied until they reached the depot at Buena Vista, to the defence of which they afterward contributed.

Colonel Bissell's regiment (2d Illinois), which had been joined by a section of Captain Sherman's battery, had become completely outflanked, and was compelled to fall back, being entirely unsupported. The enemy was now pouring masses of infantry and cavalry along the base of the mountain on our left, and was gaining our rear in great force. At this moment I arrived upon the field. The Mississippi regiment had been directed to the left before reaching the position, and immediately came into action against the Mexican infantry which had turned our flank. The 2d Kentucky regiment and a section of artillery under Captain Bragg, had previously been ordered from the right to reinforce our left, and arrived at a most opportune moment. That regiment, and a portion of the 1st Illinois, under Colonel Harden, gallantly drove the enemy, and recovered a portion of the ground we had lost. The batteries of Captains Sherman and Bragg were in position on the plateau, and did much execution, not only in front, but particularly upon the masses which had gained our rear. Discovering that the enemy was heavily pressing upon the Mississippi regiment, the 3d Indiana regiment, under Colonel Lane, was dispatched to strengthen that part of our line, which formed a crotchet perpendicular to the first line of battle. At the same time Lieutenant Kilburn, with a piece of Captain Bragg's battery, was directed to support the infantry there engaged. The action was for a long time warmly sustained at that point—the enemy making several efforts both with infantry and cavalry against our line, and being always repulsed with heavy loss. I had placed all the regular cavalry and Captain Pike's squad-

ron of Arkansas horse under the orders of Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel May, with directions to hold in check the enemy's column, still advancing to the rear along the base of the mountain, which was done in conjunction with the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry under Colonels Marshall and Yell.

In the meantime our left, which was still strongly threatened by a superior force, was farther strengthened by the detachment of Captain Bragg's, and a portion of Captain Sherman's batteries to that quarter. The concentration of artillery fire upon the masses of the enemy along the base of the mountain, and the determined resistance offered by the two regiments opposed to them, had created confusion in their ranks, and some of the corps attempted to effect a retreat upon their main line of battle. The squadron of the 1st dragoons, under Lieutenant Rucker, was now ordered up the deep ravine which these retreating corps were endeavoring to cross, in order to charge and disperse them. The squadron proceeded to the point indicated, but could not accomplish the object, being exposed to a heavy fire from a battery established to cover the retreat of those corps. Whilst the squadron was detached on this service, a large body of the enemy was observed to concentrate on our extreme left, apparently with the view of making a descent upon the hacienda of Buena Vista, where our train and baggage were deposited. Lieutenant-Colonel May was ordered to the support of that point, with two pieces of Captain Sherman's battery under Lieutenant Reynolds. In the meantime, the scattered forces near the hacienda, composed in part of Majors Trail and Gorman's commands, had been to some extent organized under the advice of Major Mouroe, chief of artillery, with the assistance of Major Morrison, volunteer staff, and were posted to defend the position. Before our cavalry had reached the hacienda, that of the enemy had made its attack; having been handsomely met by the Kentucky and Arkansas cavalry under Colonels Marshall and Yell. The Mexican column immediately divided, one portion sweeping by the depot, where it received a destructive fire from the force which had collected there, and then gaining the mountain opposite, under a fire from Lieutenant Reynolds' section, the remaining portion regaining the base of the mountain on our left. In the charge at Buena Vista, Colonel Yell fell gallantly at the head of his regiment; we also lost Adjutant Vaughan, of the Kentucky cavalry—a young officer of much promise. Lieutenant-Colonel May, who had been rejoined by the squadron of the 1st dragoons and by portions of the Arkansas and Indiana troops, under Lieutenant-Colonel Roane and Major Gorman, now approached the base of the mountain, holding in check the right flank of the enemy, upon whose masses, crowded in the narrow gorges and ravines, our artillery was doing fearful execution.

The position of that portion of the Mexican army which had gained our rear was now very critical, and it seemed doubtful whether it could regain the main body. At this moment I received from General Santa Anna a message by a staff officer, desiring to know what I wanted? I immediately dispatched Brigadier-General Wool to the Mexican general-in-chief, and sent orders to cease firing. Upon reaching the Mexican lines General Wool could not cause the enemy to cease their fire, and accordingly returned without having an interview. The extreme right of the enemy continued its retreat along the base of the mountain, and finally, in spite of all our efforts, effected a junction with the remainder of the army.

During the day, the cavalry of General Minon had ascended the elevated plain above Saltillo, and occupied the road from the city to the field of battle, where they intercepted several of our men. Approaching the town, they were fired upon by Captain Webster from the redoubt occupied by his company, and then moved off towards the eastern side of the valley, and obliquely towards Buena Vista. At this time, Captain Shover moved rapidly forward with his piece, supported by a miscellaneous command of mounted volunteers, and fired several shots at the cavalry with great effect. They were driven into the ravines which

lead to the lower valley, closely pursued by Captain Shover, who was farther supported by a piece of Captain Webster's battery, under Lieutenant Donaldson, which had advanced from the redoubt, supported by Captain Wheeler's company of Illinois volunteers. The enemy made one or two efforts to charge the artillery, but was finally driven back in a confused mass, and did not again appear upon the plain.

In the mean time, the firing had partially ceased upon the principal field. The enemy seemed to confine his efforts to the protection of his artillery, and I had left the plateau for a moment, when I was recalled thither by a very heavy musketry fire. On regaining that position, I discovered that our infantry (Illinois and 2d Kentucky) had engaged a greatly superior force of the enemy—evidently his reserve—and that they had been overwhelmed by numbers. The moment was most critical. Captain O'Brien, with two pieces, had sustained this heavy charge to the last, and was finally obliged to leave his guns on the field—his infantry support being entirely routed. Captain Bragg, who had just arrived from the left, was ordered at once into battery. Without any infantry to support him, and at the imminent risk of losing his guns, this officer came rapidly into action, the Mexican line being but a few yards from the muzzles of his pieces. The first discharge of canister caused the enemy to hesitate, the second and third drove him back in disorder, and saved the day. The 2d Kentucky regiment, which had advanced beyond supporting distance in this affair, was driven back and closely pressed by the enemy's cavalry. Taking a ravine which led in the direction of Captain Washington's battery, their pursuers became exposed to his fire, which soon checked and drove them back with loss. In the mean time the rest of our artillery had taken position on the plateau, covered by the Mississippi and 3d Indiana regiments, the former of which had reached the ground in time to pour a fire into the right flank of the enemy, and thus contribute to his repulse. In this last conflict we had the misfortune to sustain a very heavy loss. Colonel Hardin, 1st Illinois, and Colonel McKee and Lieutenant-Colonel Clay, 2d Kentucky regiment, fell at this time while gallantly leading their commands.

No farther attempt was made by the enemy to force our position, and the approach of night gave an opportunity to pay proper attention to the wounded, and also to refresh the soldiers, who had been exhausted by incessant watchfulness and combat. Though the night was severely cold, the troops were compelled for the most to bivouac without fires, expecting that morning would renew the conflict. During the night the wounded were removed to Saltillo, and every preparation made to receive the enemy, should he again attack our position. Seven fresh companies were drawn from the town, and Brigadier-General Marshall with a reinforcement of Kentucky cavalry and four heavy guns, under Captain Prentiss, 1st artillery, was near at hand, when it was discovered that the enemy had abandoned his position during the night. Our scouts soon ascertained that he had fallen back upon Agua Nueva. The great disparity of numbers, and the exhaustion of our troops, rendered it inexpedient and hazardous to attempt pursuit. A staff officer was dispatched to General Santa Anna to negotiate an exchange of prisoners, which was satisfactorily completed on the following day. Our own dead were collected and buried, and the Mexican wounded, of which a large number had been left upon the field, were removed to Saltillo, and rendered as comfortable as circumstances would permit.

On the evening of the 26th, a close reconnoissance was made of the enemy's position, which was found to be occupied only by a small body of cavalry, the infantry and artillery having retreated in the direction of San Luis Potosi. On the 27th, our troops resumed their former camp at Agua Nueva, the enemy's rear-guard evacuating the place as we approached, leaving a considerable number of wounded. It was my purpose to beat up his quarters at Encarnacion early the next morning, but upon examination, the weak condition of the cavalry

horses rendered it unadvisable to attempt so long a march without water. A command was finally dispatched to Encarnacion, on the 1st of March, under Colonel Belknap. Some two hundred wounded, and about sixty Mexican soldiers were found there, the army having passed on in the direction of Matehuala, with greatly reduced numbers, and suffering much from hunger. The dead and dying were strewn upon the road and crowded the buildings of the hacienda.

The American force engaged in the action of Buena Vista is shown by the accompanying field report, to have been 334 officers, and 4425 men, exclusive of the small command left in and near Saltillo. Of this number, two squadrons of cavalry and three batteries of light artillery, making not more than 453 men, composed the only force of regular troops. The strength of the Mexican army is stated by General Santa Anna, in his summons, to be 20,000; and that estimate is confirmed by all the information since obtained. Our loss is 267 killed, 456 wounded, and 23 missing. Of the numerous wounded, many did not require removal to the hospital, and it is hoped that a comparatively small number will be permanently disabled. The Mexican loss in killed and wounded may be fairly estimated at 1500, and will probably reach 2000. At least 500 of their killed were left upon the field of battle. We have no means of ascertaining the number of deserters and dispersed men from their ranks, but it is known to be very great.

Our loss has been especially severe in officers, twenty-eight having been killed upon the field. We have to lament the death of Captain George Lincoln, Assistant Adjutant-General, serving in the staff of General Wool—a young officer of high bearing and approved gallantry, who fell early in the action. No loss falls more heavily upon the army in the field than that of Colonels Hardin and McKee, and Lieutenant Colonel Clay. Possessing in a remarkable degree the confidence of their commands, and the last two having enjoyed the advantage of a military education, I had looked particularly to them for support in case we met the enemy. I need not say that their zeal in engaging the enemy, and the cool and steadfast courage with which they maintained their positions during the day, fully realized my hopes, and caused me to feel yet more sensibly their untimely loss.

I perform a grateful duty in bringing to the notice of the government the general good conduct of the troops. Exposed for successive nights, without fires, to the severity of the weather, they were ever prompt and cheerful in the discharge of every duty; and finally displayed conspicuous steadiness and gallantry in repulsing, at great odds, a disciplined foe. While the brilliant success achieved by their arms releases me from the painful necessity of specifying many cases of bad conduct before the enemy, I feel an increased obligation to mention particular corps and officers, whose skill, coolness, and gallantry in trying situations, and under a continued and heavy fire, seem to merit particular notice.

To Brigadier-General Wool my obligations are especially due. The high state of discipline and instruction of several of the volunteer regiments was attained under his command, and to his vigilance and arduous service before the action, and his gallantry and activity on the field, a large share of our success may justly be attributed. During most of the engagement he was in immediate command of the troops thrown back on our left flank. I beg leave to recommend him to the favorable notice of the government. Brigadier-General Lane (slightly wounded) was active and zealous throughout the day, and displayed great coolness and gallantry before the enemy.

The services of the light artillery, always conspicuous, were more than usually distinguished. Moving rapidly over the roughest ground, it was always in action at the right place and the right time, and its well-directed fire dealt destruction in the masses of the enemy. While I recommend to particular favor the gallant conduct and valuable services of Major Munroe, chief of artillery, and Cap-

tains Washington, 4th artillery, and Sherman and Bragg, 3d artillery, commanding batteries, I deem it no more than just to mention all the subaltern officers. They were nearly all detached at different times, and in every situation exhibited conspicuous skill and gallantry. Captain O'Brien, Lieutenants Brent, Whiting, and Couch, 4th artillery, and Bryan, Topographical Engineers (slightly wounded), were attached to Captain Washington's battery. Lieutenants Thomas, Reynolds, and French, 3d artillery (severely wounded), to that of Captain Sherman; and Captain Shover and Lieutenant Kilburn, 3d artillery, to that of Captain Bragg. Captain Shover, in conjunction with Lieutenant Donaldson, 1st artillery, rendered gallant and important service in repulsing the cavalry of General Minon. The regular cavalry, under Lieutenant-Colonel May, with which was associated Captain Pike's squadron of Arkansas horse, rendered useful service in holding the enemy in check and in covering the batteries at several points. Captain Steen, 1st dragoons, was severely wounded early in the day, while gallantly endeavoring, with my authority, to rally the troops which were falling to the rear.

The Mississippi riflemen, under Colonel Davis, were highly conspicuous for their gallantly and steadiness, and sustained throughout the engagement the reputation of veteran troops. Brought into action against an immensely superior force, they maintained themselves for a long time unsupported and with heavy loss, and held an important part of the field until reinforced. Colonel Davis, though severely wounded, remained in the saddle until the close of the action. His distinguished coolness and gallantry at the head of his regiment on this day entitle him to the particular notice of the government. The 3d Indiana regiment, under Colonel Lane, and a fragment of the 2d under Colonel Bowles, were associated with the Mississippi regiment during the greater portion of the day, and acquitted themselves creditably in repulsing the attempts of the enemy to break that portion of our line. The Kentucky cavalry, under Colonel Marshall, rendered good service dismounted, acting as light troops on our left, and afterward, with a portion of the Arkansas regiment, in meeting and dispersing the column of cavalry at Buena Vista. The 1st and 2d Illinois, and the 2d Kentucky regiments, served immediately under my eye, and I bear a willing testimony to their excellent conduct throughout the day. The spirit and gallantry with which the 1st Illinois and 2d Kentucky engaged the enemy in the morning, restored confidence to that part of the field, while the list of casualties will show how much these three regiments suffered in sustaining the heavy charge of the enemy in the afternoon. Captain Conner's company of Texas volunteers, attached to the 2d Illinois regiment, fought bravely, its captain being wounded and two subalterns killed. Colonel Bissell, the only surviving colonel of these regiments, merits notice for his coolness and bravery on this occasion. After the fall of the field-officers of the 1st Illinois and 2d Kentucky regiments, the command of the former devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Weatherford; that of the latter upon Major Fry.

Regimental commanders and others who have rendered reports, speak in general terms of the good conduct of their officers and men, and have specified many names, but the limits of this report forbid a recapitulation of them here. I may, however, mention Lieutenants Rucker and Campbell of the dragoons, and Captain Pike, Arkansas cavalry, commanding squadrons; Lieutenant-Colonel Field, Kentucky cavalry; Lieutenant-Colonel Roane, Arkansas cavalry, upon whom the command devolved after the fall of Colonel Yell; Major Bradford, Captain Sharpe (severely wounded), and Adjutant Griffith, Mississippi regiment; Lieutenant-Colonel Hadden, 2d Indiana regiment, and Lieutenant Robinson, aid-de-camp to General Lane; Lieutenant-Colonel Weatherford, 1st Illinois regiment; Lieutenant-Colonel Morrison, Major Trail, and Adjutant Whiteside (severely wounded), 2d Illinois regiment; and Major Fry, 2d Kentucky regiment, as being favorably noticed for gallantry and good conduct. Major Mc-

Cullouch, quarter-master in the volunteer service, rendered important services before the engagement, in the command of a spy company, and during the affair was associated with the regular cavalry. To Major Warren, 1st Illinois volunteers, I feel much indebted for his firm and judicious course, while exercising command in the city of Saltillo.

The medical staff, under the able direction of Assistant-Surgeon Hitchcock, were assiduous in attention to the wounded upon the field, and in their careful removal to the rear. Both in these respects, and in the subsequent organization and service of the hospitals, the administration of this department was every thing that could be wished.

Brigadier-General Wool speaks in high terms of the officers of his staff, and I take pleasure in mentioning them here, having witnessed their activity and zeal upon the field. Lieutenant and Aid-de-camp McDowell, Colonel Churchill, inspector-general, Captain Chapman, assistant quartermaster, Lieutenant Sitgreaves, Topographical Engineers, and Captains Howard and Davis, volunteer service, are conspicuously noticed by the general for their gallantry and good conduct. Messrs. March, Addicks, Potts, Harrison, Burgess, and Dusenbery, attached in various capacities to General Wool's head-quarters, are likewise mentioned for their intelligent alacrity in conveying orders to all parts of the field.

In conclusion, I beg leave to speak of my own staff, to whose exertions in rallying troops and communicating orders I feel greatly indebted. Major Bliss, assistant adjutant-general, Captain J. H. Eaton, and Lieutenant R. S. Garnett, aids-de-camp, served near my person, and were prompt and zealous in the discharge of every duty. Major Monroe, besides rendering valuable service as chief of artillery, was active and instrumental, as were also Colonels Churchill and Belknap, inspectors-general, in rallying troops and disposing them for the defence of the train and baggage. Colonel Whiting, quartermaster-general, and Captain Eaton, chief of the subsistence department, were engaged with the duties of their departments and also served in my immediate staff on the field. Captain Sibley, assistant quarter-master, was necessarily left with the head-quarter camp near town, where his services were highly useful. Major Mansfield and Lieutenant Benham, Engineers, and Captain Linnard and Lieutenants Pope and Franklin, Topographical Engineers, were employed before and during the engagement in making reconnoissances, and on the field were very active in bringing information and in conveying my orders to distant points. Lieutenant Kingsbury, in addition to his proper duties as ordnance officer, Captain Chilton, assistant quarter-master, and Majors Dix and Coffee, served also as extra aids-de-camp, and were actively employed in the transmission of orders. Mr. Thomas L. Crittenden, of Kentucky, though not in service, volunteered as my aid-de-camp on this occasion, and served with credit in that capacity. Major Craig, chief of ordnance, and Surgeon Craig, medical director, had been detached on duty from head-quarters, and did not reach the ground until the morning of the 24th—too late to participate in the action, but in time to render useful services in their respective departments of the staff.

I respectfully enclose returns of the troops engaged, and of casualties incident to the battle.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Major-General U. S. A. commanding.

The ADJUTANT GENERAL of the Army, Washington, D. C.

Translation.

Summons of General Santa Anna to General Taylor.

You are surrounded by 20,000 men, and cannot, in any human probability, avoid suffering a rout, and being cut to pieces with your troops; but as you de-

serve consideration and particular esteem, I wish to save you from a catastrophe, and for that purpose give you this notice, in order that you may surrender at discretion, under the assurance that you will be treated with the consideration belonging to the Mexican character, to which end you will be granted an hour's time to make up your mind, to commence from the moment when my flag of truce arrives in your camp.

With this view, I assure you of my particular consideration.

God and Liberty. Camp at Encantada, February 22, 1847.

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA.

To Gen. Z. TAYLOR, Commanding the forces of the U. S.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF OCCUPATION,
Near Buena Vista, February 22, 1847.

SIR: In reply to your note of this date, summoning me to surrender my forces at discretion, I beg leave to say that I decline acceding to your request.

With high respect, I am, sir,

Your obedient servant,

Z. TAYLOR,

Major-General U. S. Army, commanding.

SEÑOR Gen. D. ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA,
Commander-in-chief, La Encantada.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
Camp Washington, before Vera Cruz, March 12, 1847.

SIR:—The colors of the United States were triumphantly planted ashore, in full view of this city and its castle, and under the distant fire of both, in the afternoon of the 9th instant. Brevet Brigadier-General Worth's brigade of regulars led the descent, quickly followed by the division of United States volunteers under Major-General Patterson, and Brigadier-General Twiggs' reserve brigade of regulars. The three lines successively landed in sixty-seven surf boats, each boat conducted by a naval officer, and rowed by sailors from Commodore Conner's squadron, whose lighter vessels flanked the boats so as to be ready to protect the operation by their cross-fire. The whole army reached the shore in fine style, and without direct opposition (on the beach), accident, or loss, driving the enemy from the ground to be occupied.

The line of investment, according to General Orders No. 47, was partially taken up the same night, but has only been completed to-day, owing to the most extraordinary difficulties:—1. The environs of the city outside of the fire of its guns, and those of the castle, are broken into innumerable hills of loose sand, from twenty to two hundred and fifty feet in height, with almost impassable forests of chapparel between; and 2. Of all our means of land transportation, wagons, carts, pack-saddles, horses and mules, expected to join us from Tampico and the Brazos weeks ago, but fifteen carts and about one hundred draught-horses have yet arrived. Three hundred pack-mules are greatly needed to relieve the troops in taking subsistence alone, along the line of investment of more than five miles, as at present our only depot is south of the city. On the cessation of the present raging norther, which almost stifles the troops with sand, sweeping away hills and creating new, I hope to establish a second depot north of the city, which will partially relieve the left wing of the army.

In extending the line of investment around the city, the troops for three days, have performed the heaviest labors in getting over the hills and cutting through the intervening forests; all under the distant fire of the city and castle, and in the midst of many sharp skirmishes with the enemy. In these operations we have lost, in killed and wounded, several valuable officers and men. Among

the killed I have to report Brevet Captain Albutis, of the U. S. 2d infantry, much distinguished in the Florida war as a most excellent officer. He fell on the 11th instant; and Lieutenant-Colonel Dickinson, of the South Carolina regiment, was badly wounded in a skirmish the day before. Two privates have been killed in these operations and four or five wounded; as yet I have not been able to obtain their names.

As soon as the subsistence of the troops can be assured and their positions are well established, I shall, by an organized movement, cause each brigade of regulars and volunteers to send detachments, with supports, to clear its front, including sub-bourgs of the enemy's parties, so as to oblige them to confine themselves within the walls of the city.

I have heretofore reported that but two-sevenths of the siege train and ammunition had reached me; the remainder is yet unheard of. We shall commence landing the heavy metal as soon as the storm subsides, and hope that the five-sevenths may be up in time.

The city being invested, would, no doubt, early surrender but for the fear that if occupied by us it would immediately be fired upon by the castle. I am not altogether without hope of finding the means of coming to some compromise with the city upon this subject.

So far the principal skirmishing has fallen to the lot of Brigadier-Generals Pillow's and Quitman's brigades. Both old and new volunteer regiments have conducted themselves admirably; indeed the whole army is full of zeal and confidence, and cannot fail to acquire distinction in the impending operations.

To Commodore Connor, the officers and sailors of his squadron, the army is indebted for great and unceasing assistance, promptly and cheerfully rendered. Their co-operation is the constant theme of our gratitude and admiration. A handsome detachment of marines under Captain Edson, of that corps, landed with the first line, and is doing duty with the army.

March 13.

The enemy, at intervals, continues the fire of heavy ordnance from the city and castle upon our line of investment, both by day and night, but with little or no effect.

The norther has ceased, which has renewed our communication with the store-ships at anchor under Sacrificios. We shall immediately commence landing the few pieces of heavy ordnance, with ordnance stores, at hand, and hope soon to have the necessary draught mules to take them to their positions. Any further delay in the arrival of these means of transportation will be severely felt in our operations.

I have the honor to remain, sir, &c. &c..

WINFIELD SCOTT.

Hon. W. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY OF THE U. S. OF AMERICA,
Camp Washington, before Vera Cruz, March 22, 1847.

The undersigned, Major-General Scott, general-in-chief of the armies of the United States of America, in addition to the close blockade of the coast and port of Vera Cruz, previously established by the squadron under Commodore Connor of the navy of the said States, having now fully invested the said city with an overwhelming army, so as to render it impossible that its garrison should receive from without succor or reinforcement of any kind; and having caused to be established batteries, competent to the speedy reduction of the said city, he, the undersigned, deems it due to the courtesies of war, in like cases, as well as to the rights of humanity, to summon his excellency, the governor

and commander-in-chief of the city of Vera Cruz, to surrender the same to the arms of the United States of America, present before the place.

The undersigned, anxious to spare the beautiful city of Vera Cruz from the imminent hazard of demolition—its gallant defenders from a useless effusion of blood, and its peaceful inhabitants—women and children, inclusive—from the inevitable horrors of a triumphant assault, addresses this summons to the intelligence, the gallantry, and patriotism, no less than to the humanity of his excellency the governor and commander-in-chief of Vera Cruz.

The undersigned is not accurately informed whether both the city of Vera Cruz and the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa be under the command of his excellency, or whether each place has its own independent commander; but the undersigned, moved by the considerations adverted to above, may be willing to stipulate that, if the city should by capitulation, be garrisoned by a part of his troops, no missile shall be fired from within the city, or from its bastions or walls, upon the castle, unless the castle should previously fire upon the city.

The undersigned has the honor to tender to his distinguished opponent, his excellency the governor and commander-in-chief of Vera Cruz, the assurance of the high respect and consideration of the undersigned.

WINFIELD SCOTT.

[Translation.]

The undersigned, commanding general of the free and sovereign State of Vera Cruz, has informed himself of the contents of the note which Major-General Scott, general-in-chief of the forces of the United States, has addressed to him under date of to-day, demanding the surrender of this place, and castle of Ulloa; and, in answer, has to say, that the above named fortress, as well as this place, depend on his authority; and it being his principal duty, in order to prove worthy of the confidence placed in him by the government of the nation, to defend both points at all cost, to effect which he counts upon the necessary elements, and will make it good to the last; therefore his excellency can commence his operations of war in the manner which he may consider most advantageous.

The undersigned has the honor to return to the general-in-chief of the forces of the United States, the demonstrations of esteem he may be pleased to honor him with.

GOD AND LIBERTY! *Vera Cruz, March 22, 1847.*

JUAN MORALES.

TO MAJOR-GENERAL SCOTT,
General-in-chief of the forces of the United States, situated in sight of this place.

U. S. NAVY DEPARTMENT, *May 13, 1846.*

[*Private and confidential.*]

Commodore—If Santa Anna endeavors to enter the Mexican ports, you will allow him to pass freely.

Respectfully yours,

GEORGE BANCROFT.

COMMODORE DAVID CONNOR, *Commanding Home Squadron.*

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY, *Vera Cruz, March 29, 1847.*

SIR:—The flag of the United States of America floats triumphantly over the walls of this city and the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa.

Our troops have garrisoned both since 10 o'clock. It is now noon. Brigadier-General Worth is in command of the two places.

Articles of capitulation were signed and exchanged, at a late hour, night before the last. I enclose a copy of the document.

I have, heretofore, reported the principal incidents of the siege up to the 25th instant. Nothing of striking interest occurred till early in the morning of the next day, when I received overtures from General Landero, on whom General Morales had devolved the principal command. A terrible storm of wind and sand made it difficult to communicate with the city, and impossible to refer to Commodore Perry. I was obliged to entertain the proposition alone, or to continue the fire upon a place that had shown a disposition to surrender; for the loss of a day, or perhaps several, could not be permitted. The accompanying papers will show the proceedings and results.

Yesterday, after the norther had abated, and the commissioners, appointed by me early the morning before, had again met those appointed by General Landero, Commodore Perry sent ashore his second in command, Captain Aulick, as a commissioner on the part of the navy. Although not included in my specific arrangement made with the Mexican commander, I did not hesitate with proper courtesy, to desire that Captain Aulick might be duly introduced and allowed to participate in the discussions and acts of the commissioners who had been reciprocally accredited. Hence the preamble to his signature. The original American commissioners were Brevet Brigadier-General Worth, Brigadier-General Pillow, and Colonel Totten. Four more able or judicious officers could not have been desired.

I have time to add but little more. The remaining details of the siege; the able co-operation of the United States squadron, successively under the command of Commodore Connor and Perry; the admirable conduct of the whole army—regulars and volunteers—I should be happy to dwell upon as they deserve; but the steamer Princeton, with Commodore Connor on board, is under way, and I have commenced organizing an advance into the interior. This may be delayed a few days, waiting the arrival of additional means of transportation. In the meantime, a joint operation, by land and water, will be made upon Alvarado. No lateral expedition, however, shall interfere with the grand movement towards the capital.

In consideration of the great services of Colonel Totten, in the siege that has just terminated most successfully, and the importance of his presence at Washington, as the head of the engineer bureau, I entrust this dispatch to his personal care, and beg to commend him to the very favorable consideration of the department.

I have the honor to remain, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

Hon. W. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

ARTICLES OF CAPITULATION OF THE CITY OF VERA CRUZ AND THE CASTLE OF SAN JUAN D'ULLOA.

PUENTE DE HORNOS,

Without the walls of Vera Cruz, Saturday, March 27, 1847.

Terms of capitulation agreed upon by the commissioners, viz:

Generals W. J. Worth and G. J. Pillow, and Colonel J. G. Totten, chief engineer, on the part of Major-General Scott, general-in-chief of the armies of the United States; and Colonel José Gutierrez de Villanueva, Lieutenant Colonel of Engineers, Manuel Robles, and Colonel Pedro de Herrera, commissioners appointed by General of Brigade, Don José Juan Landero, commanding in chief, Vera Cruz, the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa and their dependencies, for the surrender to the arms of the United States of the said forts, with their armaments, munitions of war, garrisons, and arms.

1. The whole garrison, or garrisons to be surrendered to the arms of the United States as prisoners of war, the 29th instant, at 10 o'clock, A. M.; the garrisons to be permitted to march out with all the honors of war, and to lay down

their arms to such officers as may be appointed by the general-in-chief of the United States armies, and at a point to be agreed upon by the commissioners.

2. Mexican officers shall preserve their arms and private effects, including horses and horse furniture, and to be allowed, regular and irregular officers, as also the rank and file, five days to retire to their respective homes, on parole, as hereinafter prescribed.

3. Coincident with the surrender, as stipulated in article 1, the Mexican flags of the various forts and stations shall be struck, saluted by their own batteries; and immediately thereafter, forts Santiago and Concepcion, and the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa, occupied by the forces of the United States.

4. The rank and file of the regular portion of the prisoners to be disposed of after surrender and parole, as their general-in-chief may desire, and the irregular to be permitted to return to their homes. The officers, in respect to all arms and descriptions of force, giving the usual parole, that the said rank and file, as well as themselves, shall not serve again until duly exchanged.

5. All the *materiel* of war, and all public property of every description found in the city, the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa and their dependencies, to belong to the United States; but the armament of the same (not injured or destroyed in the further prosecution of the actual war) may be considered as liable to be restored to Mexico by a definitive treaty of peace.

6. The sick and wounded Mexicans to be allowed to remain in the city, with such medical officers and attendants, and officers of the army as may be necessary to their care and treatment.

7. Absolute protection is solemnly guaranteed to persons in the city, and property, and it is clearly understood that no private building or property is to be taken or used by the forces of the United States without previous arrangement with the owners, and for a fair equivalent.

8. Absolute freedom of religious worship and ceremonies is solemnly guaranteed.

(Signed in duplicate.)

W. J. WORTH, *Brigadier General.*

GID. J. PILLOW, *Brigadier General.*

JOS. G. TOTTEN, *Colonel and Chief Engineer.*

JOSE GUTIERREZ DE VILLANUEVA.

PEDRO MANUEL HERRERA.

MANUEL ROBLES.

Captain Aulick, appointed a commissioner by Commodore Perry on behalf of the navy, (the general-in-chief not being able, in consequence of the roughness of the sea, to communicate with the navy until after commissions had been exchanged,) and being present by General Scott's invitation, and concurring in the result and approving thereof, hereto affixes his name and signature.

J. H. AULICK, *Captain U. S. N.*

Head-quarters of the army of the United States of America, Camp Washington, before Vera Cruz, March 27, 1847.

Approved and accepted:

WINFIELD SCOTT,

M. C. PERRY,

Commander-in-chief U. S. N. forces, Gulf of Mexico.

VERA CRUZ, *Marzo 27, 1847.*

Approbad y aceptado:

JOSE JUAN DE LANDERO.

A true copy of the original articles of capitulation.

E. P. SCAMMON,

1st Lieut. Topo. Eng's, Act'g Aid-de-camp.

Note.—The remainder of the Documents will be given in the next number of the Register.

THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES.

WE have been politely furnished by R. Patterson, Esq.,* with connected tables and statements of the operations of the Mint from its commencement until the present time.

The subject of coinage, always an important one, is becoming more and more so every year. In the early days of the Republic, it attracted the attention, and enlisted the earnest efforts of such men as Washington, Jefferson and Morris. The mint was repeatedly noticed by General Washington in his messages to Congress, and while President it was his practice to visit it frequently.

We therefore present, as an acceptable introductory to our tables and statements, the following account of the coinage of the country and of the discussions and proceedings connected with the establishment and regulations of the mint, extracted from the valuable manual of the United States Assayers of the mint.

The territory which now bears the name of the United States, was in the possession of savage tribes until the seventeenth century. In 1607 the first company of emigrants arrived from Europe, and established the colony of Virginia. At intervals of a few years, new settlements were made in various other quarters; and before the close of that century, the foundations were laid for twelve of the thirteen colonies, which eventually became a union of free states.

The earliest metallic currency of each colony consisted chiefly of the coins of its mother country. In Massachusetts, however, and doubtless in all the settlements, specie was so scarce, that for many years it was common to pay taxes, and to carry on internal trade, by transferring, at certain rates, cattle, skins and the products of the soil. Various considerations, enhanced by the inconvenience and uncertainty of such a medium, induced the Massachusetts colony in 1652 to establish a mint. The law enacted for that purpose, provided for the coinage of shillings, sixpences, and three-pences, to be of the fineness of sterling silver (925 thousandth), and by a reduction of weight to be "two-pence in the shilling of less valew than the English coyne." The mint met with much opposition from the British crown, whose prerogative was invaded by its operations, but continued in existence more than thirty years, during which time a considerable amount of coin was issued. These coins are now extremely scarce, and, indeed, are not to be found except in the cabinets of the curious. Only the shilling has been

* Son of Dr. R. M. Patterson, Director of the Mints of the United States.

seen at this mint, the best specimens of which, at this day, weigh from 64 to 67 grains, and by a recent assay prove to be 926 thousandth fine: the intrinsic value, therefore, is about $16\frac{2}{3}$ cents. They are a rude coinage, very thin, and of various diameters; and there is some variety in the impressions; but the date of 1652 appears on all of them. The device of a *pine tree* on one side, has given to the series the common designation of the "pine tree coinage." They were taken in England at a discount of one-fourth of their home value.

The example of Massachusetts was followed by Maryland, where silver and copper coins were issued in 1662. These pieces were to be equivalent to the British, but in reality were not much heavier than the like denominations coined at Boston.

These were the only issues of silver coin previous to the independence of the states. There were, however, various pieces of copper struck at different periods; as, in 1694, the half-penny for the Carolinas, a two-penny piece and penny in 1723, another penny in 1733, and a half-penny for Virginia in 1773. After the revolutionary struggle of 1776—82, and before the establishment of the national mint, there were various emissions of silver and copper by states and individuals.

As the population and trades of the colonies increased, foreign gold and silver coins found their way into the country, and became a part of the circulating medium. These were chiefly the guinea, joe and its half, the doubloon and pistole in gold; the dollar and its parts, the pistareen and its parts, and the British shilling and sixpence in silver. French crowns were not known until the Revolution, when they became common. But of the specie currencies, no piece was as well known as the Spanish American dollar; insomuch that, about the epoch just referred to, it became the effective standard or unit of our moneys.

The *pound* of the colonies was at first the same as the pound sterling of England, being simply a money of account. This relation, in process of time, became greatly altered, in consequence of excessive issues of paper by the colonial authorities; but as these issues were greater in some of the colonies than in others, the proportion was very unequal and complicated. The following were the rates of the colonial pounds, in sterling pounds and Spanish dollars after the revolution.

	New England and Virginia.			New York and North Carolina.			Middle States.			South Carolina and Georgia.		
	£	s	d	£	s	d	£	s	d	£	s	d
Pound sterling	1	6	8	1	15	6 $\frac{2}{3}$	1	13	4	1	0	8 $\frac{2}{3}$
Spanish dollar		6	0		8	0		7	6		4	8

Peace was scarcely concluded, before the preliminary step was taken towards a national coinage. Congress directed the financier of the confederation, Robert Morris, to lay before them his views upon the subject of coins and currency. The report was presented early in 1782, and is stated by Mr. Jefferson to have been the work of the assistant financier, Gouverneur Morris. It will be interesting to trace the steps by which three grand benefits have been secured to this country; the establishment of a uniform currency—the rejection of mere moneys of account, or rather, making them the same with real moneys—and the adoption of a decimal notation.

All these objects were in the eye of the assistant financier. He first labored to harmonize the moneys of the states; and found that the $\frac{1}{440}$ th part of a dollar (Spanish) was a common divisor for the various currencies. Starting with this fraction as his unit, he proposed the following table of moneys:

Ten units to be equal to one penny.

Ten pence one bill.

Ten bills one dollar, about two-thirds the Spanish dollar.

Ten dollars one *crown*.

The report contains this observation:—"Although it is not absolutely necessary, yet it is very desirable, that money should be increased in a decimal ratio; because by that means, all calculations of interest, exchange, insurance and the like, are rendered much more simple and accurate, and of course more within the power of the great mass of the people."

The subject was discussed repeatedly in Congress, but no further step was taken until 1784, when Mr. Jefferson, on behalf of a committee appointed for the purpose, brought in a report, disagreeing with that of the financier, except as to the decimal system. The following remarks occur in this document: "The most easy ratio of multiplication and division is that of ten. Every one knows the facility of decimal arithmetic. Every one remembers, that when learning money arithmetic, he used to be puzzled with adding the farthings, taking out the fours, and carrying them on; adding the pence, taking out the twelves, and carrying them on; adding the shillings, taking out the twenties, and carrying them on; but when he came to the pound, where he had only tens to carry forward, it was easy and free from error. The bulk of mankind are school-boys through life. Certainly, in all cases, where we are free to choose between easy and difficult modes of operation, it is most rational to choose the easy. The financier, therefore, in his report, well proposes that our coins should be in decimal proportions to one another."

He found fault with the *unit* of Mr. Morris, first, on account of

its diminutive size: "A horse or bullock of eighty dollars' value would require a notation of six figures, to wit, 115,200 units:" secondly, because of its want of correspondence in value with any known coins. In lieu of this the Spanish dollar was proposed, as being of convenient size, capable of easy actual division, and familiar to the minds of the people. It was added, that the course of our commerce would bring us more of this than any other foreign coin; and besides, the dollar was already as much referred to as a measure of value, as the respective provincial pounds. Upon this basis, it was proposed to strike four coins, viz:

A golden piece, of the value of ten dollars.

A dollar in silver.

A tenth of a dollar, also in silver.

A hundredth of a dollar, in copper.

The assistant financier conceded something to Mr. Jefferson's views, but adhered to the main principles of his own scheme. It would be out of place to enter into the arguments offered on behalf of each proposition; it is sufficient to say, that Congress in 1785 adopted Mr. Jefferson's report, and in the following year made legal provision for a coinage on that basis.

All these proceedings were, of course, under the CONFEDERATION, which lasted from 1778 to 1787. An article in that compact provided as follows: "The United States, in Congress assembled, shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective states." Some of the states issued copper coins during that period. How long they continued current cannot be stated; but at this day, those that remain, are in custody of coin-collectors. The cent of Massachusetts varies in weight from 148 to 164 grains; the New Jersey piece, 128 to 154 grains. The Vermont cent of 1786, weighs about 110 grains; the Connecticut coin is the most irregular, varying from 96 to 144 grains. There are, also, other varieties, particularly the "Nova Constellatio," of thirteen stars, and another piece with the same significant number of RINGS conjoined, both of which were coined in Massachusetts.

The constitution of 1787 arrested all these local issues, and vested the right of coinage solely in the general government. The establishment of a mint was, however, still delayed. In the well known report on moneys, weights and measures, made to Congress in 1790 by Mr. Jefferson, then Secretary of State, it was remarked: "The experiment made by Congress in 1786, by declaring that there should be one money of account and payment through the United States, and that its parts and multiples should be in a decimal ratio, has obtained such general approbation, both at home and abroad, that nothing seems wanting but the actual coinage to banish

the discordant pounds, shillings, pence and farthings of the different states, and to establish in their stead the new denominations.”

On the 2d of April, 1792, a code of laws was enacted for the establishment and regulation of the mint, under which, with slight amendments, the coinage was executed for forty-two years.

The denominations of coin, with their rates, were as follows:

GOLD.—The eagle of ten dollars, to weigh 270 grains, the half and quarter in proportion; all of the fineness of 22 carats, or 917 thousandths.

SILVER.—The dollar of 100 cents, to weigh 416 grains; the half, quarter, tenth or dime, and twentieth or half dime, in proportion; the fineness to be 1485 parts in 1664, or 892.4 thousandths.

COPPER.—The cent, to weigh 264 grains; the half cent in proportion.

Since the act of 1792, the following alterations in the standards have been made:

On the 14th January, 1793, the weight of the cent was reduced to 208 grains; the half-cent in proportion.

January 26th, 1796, President Washington issued a proclamation (as he had been empowered to do by law), that “on account of the increased price of copper, and the expense of coinage,” the cent would be reduced to 7 dwts. or 168 grains, and the half cent in proportion. The copper coins have since remained at this standard.

June 28th, 1834. An act was passed changing the weight and fineness of the gold coins, and the relative value of gold to silver. Before stating the alterations, it may be proper to observe, that the estimate of gold as being worth fifteen times as much as silver, which was the original basis, was found too low at the market value; which, although always fluctuating, was nearer sixteen to one, upon a general average. The effect of our legal proportions was to reduce the coinage of gold, and to restrain its circulation; being always at a premium, the coin was immediately exported to Europe, in the course of trade, and there quickly wrought into other shapes.

To provide a remedy for this evil, engaged the attention of some of our most eminent statesmen for a series of fifteen years. At length, in June 1834, the weight of the eagle was reduced by law to 258 grains (the parts in proportion), of which 232 grains must be fine gold, making the fineness 21 carats $2\frac{1}{4}$ car. grains, or $899\frac{225}{1000}$ thousandths. This was an increase of $6\frac{681}{1000}$ per cent. on the former value of gold. The silver coinage was not changed.

The disadvantages of the complex standards of fineness, both in gold and silver, which were difficult to be expressed or remembered, and very inconvenient in regard to the frequent calculations which were based upon them, early determined the present director to en-

deavor to effect an improvement. The standard of nineteenth fine, as adopted in France and some other countries, was obviously the most simple, and upon every consideration, the most suitable. To bring our silver coins to that proportion, without changing the amount of fine silver in them, it was only necessary to put less copper by $3\frac{1}{2}$ grains, in the dollar, reducing its weight to $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains. The weight of the gold was not to be changed, but the fineness increased about three-fourths of one thousandth, a difference far within the scope of the legal allowance, and of course, hardly appreciable. These proportions were incorporated in a carefully digested code of mint laws, which was enacted by Congress in January 1837. By that act, the eagle is to be 900 thousandths fine, and to weigh 258 grains; the half and quarter in proportion; and the dollar, at the same fineness, to weigh $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains; the parts in proportion. The allowed deviation in fineness, for gold, is from 898 to 902; for silver, 897 to 903.

The following is a recapitulation of the various standards of the gold and silver coins.

	Gold Eagle.		Silver Dollar.	
	Weights, Grains.	Fineness, Thousandths.	Weight, Grains.	Fineness, Thousandths.
Act of April 2, 1792	270	916.7	416	892.4
Act of June 28, 1834	258	899.2		
Act of January 18, 1837	258	900	412.5	900

It will be proper, in concluding this article, to explain briefly the organization of the mint of the United States. Until the year 1835 there was but one institution, which was located at Philadelphia. In that year three *branches* of the mint were created by act of Congress. Two of these were for the coinage of gold only, and were to be situated at the towns Charlotte in North Carolina, and Dahlonega in Georgia—central points of the gold mining region. The third branch was for both gold and silver, and located at New Orleans, the commercial emporium of the south-west. These three institutions, which, in the view of the law, are not distinct mints, but rather branches of the mint, are respectively managed by superintendents, who are under the control of the Director of the parent mint. The branches went into operation in the year 1838. Their coinage is uniform with that of the establishment at Philadelphia, being systematically tested there for approval. A bill is now before Congress for the establishment of a branch mint at the City of New York.

The whole mint establishment, thus constituted, is itself a bureau or branch of the Treasury Department of the general government, and is under the supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury. Its

operations are annually reported through the President to Congress, and are laid open to the public through that body.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT,

Communicating the Report of the Director of the Mint, showing the Operations of the Mint and Branch Mints for the year 1847.

To the Senate of the United States :

I transmit, herewith, the annual report of the director of the mint at Philadelphia, showing the operation of the mint and branch mints for the year 1847.

JAMES K. POLK.

WASHINGTON, January 31, 1848.

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES,

Philadelphia, January 14, 1848.

SIR:—I have the honor to present the following report of the operations of the mint and branch mints during the past year.

The coinage at the principal mint amounted to \$14,348,367: comprising \$13,269,080 in gold, \$990,450 in silver, and \$61,837 in copper coins; and composed of 11,545,278 pieces. The deposits of gold within the year amounted to \$13,670,896, and those of silver to \$962,781: making, together, \$14,633,677.

At the New Orleans branch mint the coinage amounted to \$7,469,000; comprising \$6,085,000 in gold, and \$1,384,000 in silver coins, and composed of 3,659,500 pieces. The deposits for coinage amounted to \$7,739,506; \$6,252,288 in gold, and \$1,487,278 in silver.

The branch mint at Charlotte received, during the year, deposits of gold to the value of \$344,054, and its coinage amounted to \$478,820; composed of 84,151 half-eagles, and 23,226 quarter-eagles.

The branch mint at Dahlonega received during the year, deposits of gold to the value of \$352,366, and its coinage amounted to \$361,485; composed of 64,405 half-eagles, and 15,748 quarter-eagles.

The deposits during the year, at the four mints, amounted, in all, to the sum of \$23,069,603; of which \$20,619,544 was in gold, and \$2,450,059 in silver. The whole coinage amounted to \$22,657,672; composed of \$20,221,385 in gold, \$2,374,450 in silver, and \$61,837 in copper coins.

Statements, in the tabular form, relative to the operations of the year, and former years, are subjoined; and from the last of these, it will be seen that the coinage of 1847 is nearly double in value of that of any former year, and that the proportion of gold to silver has greatly increased.

Of the deposits, a large portion was made under the act of February 9, 1793, which requires that all foreign gold and silver coins, (except Spanish milled dollars, and parts of such dollars,) which shall be received for moneys due to the United States, shall, previously to their being issued in circulation, be coined anew. The amount thus received, at the Philadelphia mint, was \$9,829,404.

I have the honor to be, sir, with great respect, your faithful servant,

R. M. PATTERSON,

Director of the Mint.

To the PRESIDENT of the United States.

Statement of Deposits and Coinage at the Mint of the United States and Branches in the year 1847.

DEPOSITS.

	MINTS.				Total.
	Charlotte, N. C.	Dahlonega, Geo.	New Orleans.	Philadelphia.	
<i>Gold.</i>					
United States coins, old standard . . .			\$9,901	\$35,534	\$45,435
Foreign coins . . .			6,220,700	13,171,679	19,392,379
United States bullion . . .	\$344,054	\$352,366	9,256	183,409	889,085
Foreign bullion . . .			12,371	280,274	292,645
Total gold . . .	344,054	352,366	6,252,228	13,670,896	20,619,544
<i>Silver.</i>					
Foreign coins . . .			1,324,680	865,705	2,190,385
Foreign bullion . . .			162,598	90,669	253,267
United States bullion . . .				6,407	6,407
Total silver . . .			1,487,278	962,781	2,450,059
Total gold and silver	\$344,054	\$352,366	\$7,739,506	\$14,633,677	\$23,069,603

COINAGE.

<i>Gold.</i>					
Eagles, pieces, . . .			571,500	862,264	1,433,764
Half-eagles, pieces, . . .	84,151	64,405	12,000	919,781	1,080,337
Quarter-eagles, pieces, . . .	23,226	15,784	124,000	29,814	192,824
Value gold, dollars, . . .	478,820	361,485	6,085,000	13,296,080	20,221,385
<i>Silver.</i>					
Dollars, pieces, . . .				140,750	140,750
Half-dollars, pieces, . . .			2,584,000	1,156,000	3,740,000
Quarter-dollars, pieces, . . .			368,000	734,000	1,102,000
Dimes, pieces, . . .				245,000	245,000
Half-dimes, pieces, . . .				1,274,000	1,274,000
Value silver, dollars, . . .			1,384,000	990,450	2,374,450
<i>Copper.</i>					
Cents, pieces, . . .				6,183,669	6,183,669
Half-cents, pieces, . . .					
Value copper, dollars, . . .				61,836 69	61,836 69
Number of pieces, . . .	107,377	80,189	3,659,500	11,545,278	15,392,344
Value, dolls. and cts. . .	478,820	361,485	7,469,000	14,348,366 69	22,637,671 69

Mints and periods.	GOLD.					SILVER.					TOTAL.	
	Eagles. Pieces.	Half-eagles. Pieces.	Quarter-eagles. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.	Dollars. Pieces.	Half-dollars. Pieces.	Quarter-dollars. Pieces.	Dimes. Pieces.	Half-dimes. Pieces.	Value. Dollars.		Number. Pieces.
Charlotte, N. C.	1838	12,886	7,894	84,165							20,780	84,165
	1839	23,467	18,173	162,767							41,640	162,767
	1840	18,994	12,834	127,055							31,898	127,055
	1841	21,467	10,281	133,038							31,748	133,038
	1842	27,480	8,642	139,005							36,122	159,005
	1843	44,353	26,096	287,005							70,449	287,005
	1844	23,631	11,622	147,210							35,253	147,210
1845		12,995	4,808	76,995						17,803	76,995	
1846		84,151	23,226	478,820						107,377	478,820	
1847												
Total		269,424	123,376	1,656,060							393,000	1,656,060
Dahlonoga, Ga.	1838	20,583	13,074	102,915							20,583	102,915
	1839	18,939	3,532	128,880							32,613	128,880
	1840	22,896	30,495	123,310							26,428	123,310
	1841	30,495	4,164	162,885							34,659	162,885
	1842	59,608	4,643	309,648							64,251	309,648
	1843	98,452	36,209	582,782							134,661	582,782
	1844	88,982	17,332	488,240							106,314	488,240
1845	90,629	19,460	501,795							110,089	501,795	
1846	80,294	19,303	449,727							99,597	449,727	
1847	64,405	15,784	361,485							80,189	361,485	
Total		575,283	134,101	3,211,667							709,384	3,211,667
New Orleans.	1838		9,396	23,490	116,000			402,430		40,243	402,430	40,243
	1839		30,400	26,200	217,500	855,100	425,200	1,291,600	1,060,000	240,161	2,476,996	263,650
	1840	2,500	8,350	7,380	85,200	401,000	452,000	1,175,000	935,000	698,100	3,446,900	915,600
	1841	27,400	16,400	19,800	405,500	957,000	769,000	2,007,500	815,000	555,000	3,693,730	640,200
	1842	175,162	101,075	368,002	3,177,000	2,268,000	968,000	2,020,000	350,000	890,250	4,159,600	1,295,750
	1843	118,700	364,600		3,010,000	2,094,000	740,000	150,000	220,000	1,391,000	4,030,239	4,668,000
	1844	47,500	41,000	66,000	680,000	2,304,000		230,000		1,198,500	3,448,300	4,208,500
1845	81,780	58,000	124,000	1,272,800	59,000				1,070,000	2,412,500	1,750,000	
1846	571,500	12,000	620,778	6,085,000	2,584,000	368,000			1,211,000	2,568,780	2,483,800	
1847	1,024,542	631,825	878,455	14,956,490	13,584,100	3,722,200	7,276,530	3,380,000	1,384,000	3,659,500	7,469,000	
Total		1,476,532	878,455	19,824,217	59,000	13,584,100	3,722,200	7,276,530	3,380,000	8,678,253	31,401,359	28,502,470
Aggregate		1,476,532	878,455	19,824,217	59,000	13,584,100	3,722,200	7,276,530	3,380,000	8,678,253	31,401,359	28,502,470

Statement of the amount of Coinage at the Mint of the United States, in the several denominations

Per- iods.	GOLD.					SILVER.			
	Eagles.	Half- eagles.	Quarter- eagles.	Total Gold Coinage.		Dollars.	Half- dollars.		
				Number.	Value.				
	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Dolls. Cts.	Pieces.	Pieces.		
1793	} 2,795	8,707		11,502	71,485 00	204,791	323,144		
1794									
1795									
1796	6,934	6,196	963	14,093	102,727 50	72,920	3,918		
1797	8,323	3,609	859	12,791	103,422 50	7,776			
1798	7,974	24,867	614	33,455	205,610 00	327,536			
1799	17,483	7,451	480	25,414	213,285 00	423,515			
1800	25,965	11,622		37,587	317,760 00	220,920			
1801	29,254	26,006		55,260	422,570 00	54,454	30,289		
1802	15,090	53,176	2,612	70,878	423,310 00	41,650	29,890		
1803	8,979	33,506	423	42,908	258,377 50	66,064	31,715		
1804	9,795	30,475	3,327	43,597	258,642 50	19,570	156,519		
1805		33,183	1,781	34,964	170,367 50	321	211,722		
1806		64,093	1,616	65,709	324,505 00		839,576		
1807		84,093	6,812	90,905	437,495 00		1,051,576		
1808		55,578	2,710	58,288	284,665 00		1,368,600		
1809		33,875		33,875	169,375 00		1,405,810		
1810		100,287		100,287	501,435 00		1,276,276		
1811		99,581		99,581	497,905 00		1,203,644		
1812		58,087		58,087	290,435 00		1,628,059		
1813		95,428		95,428	477,140 00		1,241,903		
1814		15,454		15,454	77,270 00		1,039,075		
1815		635		635	3,175 00				
1816							47,150		
1817							1,215,567		
1818		48,588		48,588	242,940 00		1,960,322		
1819		51,723		51,723	258,615 00		2,208,000		
1820		263,806		263,806	1,319,030 00		751,122		
1821		34,641	6,448	41,089	189,325 00		1,305,797		
1822		17,796		17,796	88,980 00		1,559,573		
1823		14,485		14,485	72,425 00		1,694,200		
1824		17,340	2,600	19,940	93,200 00		3,504,954		
1825		29,060	4,434	33,494	156,385 00		2,943,166		
1826		18,069	760	18,829	92,245 00		4,004,189		
1827		24,913	2,800	27,713	131,565 00		5,493,400		
1828		28,029		28,029	140,145 00		3,075,200		
1829		57,442	3,403	60,845	295,717 50		3,712,156		
1830		126,351	4,540	130,891	643,105 00		4,764,800		
1831		140,594	4,520	145,114	714,270 00		5,873,660		
1832		157,487	4,400	161,887	798,435 00		4,797,000		
1833		193,630	4,160	197,790	978,550 00		5,206,000		
1834		732,169	117,370	849,539	3,954,270 00		6,412,004		
1835		371,534	131,402	502,936	2,186,175 00		5,352,006		
1836		553,147	547,986	1,101,133	4,135,700 00	1,000	6,546,200		
1837		207,121	45,080	252,201	1,143,305 00		3,629,820		
1838	7,200	286,588	47,030	340,818	1,622,515 00		3,546,000		
1839	38,248	118,143	27,021	183,412	1,040,747 50	300	3,334,561		
1840	47,338	137,382	18,859	203,579	1,207,437 50	61,005	1,435,008		
1841	63,131	15,833		78,964	710,475 00	173,000	310,000		
1842	81,507	27,578	2,823	111,908	960,017 50	184,618	2,012,764		
1843	75,462	611,205	100,546	787,213	4,062,010 00	165,100	3,844,000		
1844	6,361	340,370	6,784	353,515	1,782,420 00	20,000	1,766,000		
1845	26,153	417,099	91,051	534,303	2,574,652 50	24,500	589,000		
1846	20,095	395,942	21,598	437,635	2,234,655 00	110,600	2,210,000		
1847	862,264	919,781	29,814	1,811,859	13,296,080 00	140,750	1,156,000		
Totals	1,360,351	7,203,755	1,247,626	9,811,732	52,741,350 00	2,320,390	108,101,326		

of Coin, from the commencement of its operations, until the 31st of December, 1847, inclusive.

Total Silver Coinage.		COPPER.		TOTAL.		Pe- riods.
Number.	Value.	Total Copper Coinage.		Whole Coinage.		
<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Dolls. Cts.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Dolls. Cts.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Dolls. Cts.</i>	
614,351	370,683 80	1,208,567	11,373 00	1,834,420	453,541 80	1793
115,097	79,077 50	1,090,180	10,324 40	1,219,370	192,129 40	1794
77,816	12,591 45	1,004,558	9,510 34	1,095,165	125,524 29	1795
355,086	330,291 00	979,700	9,797 00	1,368,241	545,698 00	1796
423,515	423,515 00	916,752	9,106 68	1,365,681	645,906 68	1797
266,680	224,296 00	3,033,705	29,279 40	3,337,972	571,335 40	1798
153,293	74,758 00	1,362,837	13,623 37	1,571,390	510,956 37	1799
95,525	58,343 00	3,449,466	34,422 83	3,615,869	516,075 83	1800
168,669	87,118 00	2,569,253	25,203 03	2,780,830	370,698 53	1801
191,092	100,340 50	1,812,150	12,844 94	2,046,839	371,827 94	1802
469,817	149,388 50	1,755,580	13,483 48	2,260,361	333,239 48	1803
1,045,700	471,319 00	704,000	5,260 00	1,815,409	801,084 00	1804
1,437,219	597,448 75	1,203,221	9,652 21	2,731,345	1,044,595 96	1805
1,368,600	684,300 00	1,509,000	13,090 00	2,925,888	982,055 00	1806
1,450,520	707,376 00	1,377,439	8,001 53	2,861,834	884,752 53	1807
1,282,631	638,773 50	1,673,500	15,660 00	3,056,410	1,155,868 50	1808
1,268,824	608,340 00	2,811,165	2,495 95	1,649,570	1,108,740 95	1809
1,628,059	814,029 50	1,075,500	10,755 00	2,761,646	1,115,219 50	1810
1,241,903	620,951 50	418,000	4,180 00	1,755,331	1,102,271 50	1811
1,460,575	561,687 50	357,830	3,578 30	1,833,859	642,535 80	1812
69,232	17,308 00			69,867	20,483 00	1813
67,153	28,575 75	2,820,982	28,209 82	2,888,135	56,785 57	1814
1,215,567	607,783 50	3,948,400	39,484 00	5,163,967	647,267 50	1815
2,321,496	1,070,454 50	3,167,000	31,670 00	5,537,084	1,345,064 50	1816
2,352,000	1,140,000 00	2,671,000	26,710 00	5,074,723	1,425,325 00	1817
1,821,153	501,680 70	4,407,550	44,075 50	6,492,509	1,864,786 20	1818
2,709,160	825,762 45	389,000	3,890 00	3,139,249	1,018,977 45	1819
1,723,653	805,806 50	2,072,339	20,723 39	3,813,788	915,509 89	1820
2,152,000	895,550 00			2,166,485	967,975 00	1821
3,504,954	1,752,477 00	1,262,000	12,620 00	4,786,894	1,858,297 00	1822
3,621,166	1,564,583 00	1,524,100	14,926 00	5,178,760	1,735,894 00	1823
4,004,180	2,002,090 00	1,751,425	16,344 25	5,774,434	2,110,679 25	1824
6,712,400	2,869,200 00	2,357,732	23,577 32	9,097,845	3,024,342 32	1825
3,302,200	1,575,600 00	2,866,624	25,636 24	6,196,853	1,741,381 24	1826
5,712,156	1,994,578 00	1,901,500	16,580 00	7,674,501	2,306,875 00	1827
6,514,800	2,495,400 00	1,711,500	17,115 00	8,357,191	3,155,620 00	1828
8,285,710	3,175,600 00	3,361,460	33,603 60	11,792,284	3,923,473 60	1829
6,604,500	2,579,000 00	2,362,000	23,620 00	9,128,387	3,401,055 00	1830
7,217,000	2,759,000 00	2,893,000	28,160 00	10,307,790	3,765,710 00	1831
8,813,004	3,415,002 00	1,975,100	19,151 00	11,637,643	7,388,423 00	1832
11,474,006	3,443,003 00	4,019,400	39,489 00	15,996,342	5,668,667 00	1833
10,109,200	3,606,100 00	2,509,200	23,100 00	13,719,333	7,764,900 00	1834
7,200,220	2,096,010 00	5,558,300	55,583 00	13,010,721	3,299,898 00	1835
8,625,500	2,293,000 00	6,370,200	63,702 00	15,336,518	3,979,217 00	1836
5,948,272	1,949,136 00	3,128,661	31,286 61	9,260,345	3,021,170 11	1837
4,386,805	1,028,603 00	2,462,700	24,627 00	7,053,084	2,260,667 50	1838
3,375,500	577,750 00	1,597,367	15,973 67	5,051,831	1,304,198 67	1839
4,987,882	1,442,500 00	2,383,390	23,833 90	7,483,180	2,426,351 40	1840
7,189,700	2,443,750 00	2,428,320	24,283 20	10,405,233	6,530,043 20	1841
2,709,700	1,037,050 00	2,397,752	23,977 52	5,460,967	2,843,447 52	1842
4,854,500	803,200 00	3,894,804	38,948 04	9,283,607	3,416,800 54	1843
2,888,900	1,347,580 00	4,120,800	41,208 00	7,447,335	3,623,443 00	1844
3,549,750	990,450 00	6,183,669	61,836 69	11,545,278	14,348,366 69	1845
171,138,391	62,748,211 90	118,279,478	1,145,591 21	299,229,601	116,635,153 11	

Statement of the annual amounts of Deposits of Gold, for Coinage, at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, from Mines in the United States.

Pe- riods.	DEPOSITED AT THE UNITED STATES MINT.										DEPOSITED AT THE BRANCH MINTS.				MINTS AND BRANCHES.
	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Tennes- see.	Ala- bama.	Various sources.	Total at the United States mint.	Branch mint at Charlotte, N. C.	Branch mint at Dahlonega, Georgia.	Branch mint at New Or- leans.	Total at the branch mints.	Total de- posits of United States gold.		
1824		\$5,000						\$5,000					\$5,000		
1825		17,000						17,000					17,000		
1826		20,000						20,000					20,000		
1827		21,000						21,000					21,000		
1828		46,000						46,000					46,000		
1829	\$2,500	134,000	\$3,500					140,000					140,000		
1830	24,000	204,000	26,000					466,000					466,000		
1831	26,000	294,000	22,000	\$212,000			\$1,000	520,000					520,000		
1832	34,000	458,000	45,000	176,000	1,000			678,000					678,000		
1833	104,000	475,000	66,000	216,000	7,000			868,000					868,000		
1834	62,000	380,000	38,000	415,000	3,000			898,000					898,000		
1835	60,400	263,500	42,400	319,900	100		12,000	698,500					698,500		
1836	62,000	148,100	55,200	201,400	300			467,000					467,000		
1837	52,100	116,900	29,400	83,600				282,000					282,000		
1838	55,000	66,000	13,000	36,000	1,500		200	171,700	\$127,000	\$135,700	\$700	\$263,400	435,100		
1839	57,600	53,500	6,300	20,300	300	\$500		138,500	196,836	113,035	6,869	246,740	385,240		
1840	38,995	36,804	5,319	91,113	104	4,431		176,766	124,726	121,858	2,835	249,419	526,185		
1841	25,736	76,431	3,440	139,796	1,212	1,863		248,447	248,847	161,974	1,818	233,639	542,117		
1842	42,163	61,629	223	150,276		5,579	13,717	273,587	174,508	323,372	5,630	503,510	777,007		
1843	48,148	62,873	5,099	56,619	2,788	4,786	415	180,728	272,064	570,080	22,573	864,717	1,045,445		
1844	40,595	194,917	11,856	30,739	2,240	12,298	2,377	295,022	167,348	479,794	25,036	672,178	967,200		
1845	86,733	365,886	5,386	17,325	3,202	6,472	4,328	489,382	498,632	20,313	518,945	1,008,327			
1846	55,538	286,105	100,641	13,601	2,642	7,542		466,069	196,381	455,149	21,758	673,288	1,139,357		
1847	67,736	99,491	1,102	10,547	2,511	2,022		183,409	344,054	352,366	9,256	705,676	889,085		
	945,294	3,366,136	479,866	2,930,246	29,899	45,493	34,237	7,750,141	1,662,764	3,211,960	116,788	4,991,512	12,741,653		

Recapitulation of the amount of Coinage at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, from the commencement of operations to December 31, 1847.

Commenced operations.	Mints.	Whole Coinage in pieces.	Whole Coinage in value.
1793	Philadelphia Mint	299,229,601	116,635,153 11
1838	New Orleans Branch	30,298,975	23,634,743 00
1838	Charlotte Branch	393,000	1,656,060 00
1838	Dahlonega Branch	709,384	3,211,667 50
		330,630,960	145,137,623 61

THE COAL OF PENNSYLVANIA.

[For the very interesting facts contained in the following statements, we are mainly indebted to the statistical articles of Col. Childs, the editor of the Commercial list, who has devoted himself with unusual perseverance and ability to the collection of valuable information on these and kindred subjects. It gives us pleasure to mention that he has in preparation, (nearly completed,) a set of tables exhibiting the exports of grain from the United States, with the prices for every month since the year 1785.]

THE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA is attracting, more and more, the attention of the country. No thinking person can contemplate its progress without being deeply impressed with the importance, to our Union, of the state in which such vast resources of fuel are found.

If the importance of the coal trade is inconceivably great, its progress has been astonishing. Anthracite coal was first used as fuel (on tide water) in 1820, and the total supply then sent to market, was 365 tons!—a quantity smaller than that now annually consumed by hundreds of single establishments. We now find a single Iron Manufacturing company consuming 60,000 tons of anthracite, and 100,000 bushels of bituminous coals annually.

From being regarded as a doubtful article of combustion, anthracite coal has come to be largely used for domestic purposes, for the production of steam in manufacturing establishments, for propelling steamboats and railroad locomotives, and more recently for the manufacture of iron, for which purpose it is employed on an immense scale. In 1840, there were no anthracite furnaces in full and successful operation. There are now forty furnaces in blast, many of them of the largest class.—Within the last three years eighteen rolling mills have been erected, which consume hundreds of thousands of tons of coal annually. This branch of business, so important in a national view, is destined to increase rapidly, as the demand for railroad iron increases in almost every section of our country. It is only by collecting details and uniting them, that the extent and importance of the coal trade are made apparent. It has already more than trebled the coasting trade of Philadelphia, and pays annually a freight on the shipments coastwise from this port, of more than a million of dollars. If this trade is of such importance in this period of its comparative infancy, what will it be in its full growth?

About the year 1837, a report was made to the government, by MAJ. BACHE, of the Topographical Engineers, on the subject of an artificial harbor or break-water at Cape May, in which he states, that the INSURABLE INTEREST CREATED

BY THE COAL TRADE PASSING AROUND CAPE MAY ALONE, ALREADY AMOUNTS TO MORE THAN TWENTY-TWO MILLIONS OF DOLLARS PER ANNUM, estimating merely the vessels in ballast coming after it, and the value of the vessel and cargo carrying it to the various ports at which it is wanted. Many of these vessels bring us supplies from the ports they come from, at merely a nominal freight, instead of ballast, plaster, fish, lumber, salt and other articles required for consumption in the interior, which add materially to the resources of the canals and railroads.

In England, coal appears to have been first used as fuel, about the close of the 12th century. In 1239, Henry III. granted a charter to the burgesses of Newcastle to dig for coal, which is the first legal mention of the article on record. As early as 1140, we find among the *Leges Burgorum*, an enactment giving special privileges to the inbringers of fuel, which is described as being "wood, turves and peats." The English coal trade, which now amounts to forty millions of tons annually, may indicate to us something of what we have reason to predict in our future career.

The following table shows the imports of foreign coal into the United States, from 1821 to 1846 inclusive:—

Years.	Foreign coal.	Years.	Foreign coal.
1821,	22,122	1834,	71,626
1822,	34,523	1835,	49,969
1823,	30,433	1836,	108,432
1824,	7,228	1837,	153,450
1825,	25,645	1838,	129,083
1826,	35,665	1839,	181,551
1827,	40,257	1840,	162,867
1828,	32,302	1841,	155,394
1829,	45,393	1842,	141,526
1830,	58,136	1843,	41,163
1831,	36,509	1844,	87,073
1832,	72,978	1845,	85,771
1833,	92,432	1846,	156,853

The canals and railroads leading to the coal mines of Pennsylvania, have cost \$26,720,000.

If to these we add the Delaware and Hudson Canal, 108 miles long, and railroad 24 miles, at a cost of \$3,250,000, and the Morris Canal 182 miles long, constructed to carry coal to New York at a cost of \$4,000,000, we have the sum total of the means of transportation at the cost of \$34,970,000—and the total length of canals, 417 miles, and railroads, 473 miles.

The coal trade gives employment to a very great number of persons. Indeed, nearly all the cost of the article is the result of labor. In its locality it is worth only from 25 to 50 cents per ton; averaging 35 cents per ton. But in all the operations connected with mining and transportation, a vast amount of labor is employed. We must take into account, not only the miners, and the boatmen and brakemen on the canals and railroads, and the hands on board the transporting vessels, and the cartmen at the places of delivery, but also the thousands employed in making the necessary railroads and canals, the locomotives, and stationary engines, the boats, &c. &c.

If we divide the twenty-seven years that have elapsed since anthracite coal was first brought into use, into three periods of nine years each, it will be seen that the total supply from all the mines in the first period, ending with the close of 1828, was

-	-	-	-	239,845 tons.
Second period, ending in 1837,	-	-	-	3,829,829 "
Third period, ending with 1846,	-	-	-	11,549,061 "
Showing the annual average receipts for the first nine				
years to have been	-	-	-	26,648 "
Second period,	-	-	-	454,534 "
Third period,	-	-	-	1,283,229 "

From which it appears that the quantity consumed during the last nine years, was nearly three times as large as during the preceding eighteen years.

The annual shipments of coal coastwise, from Philadelphia, have been as follows:

1822,	4	vessels carrying	181	tons.
1823,	11	do do	1,123	"
1824,	40	do do	3,958	"
1825,	190	do do	19,378	"
1826,	271	do do	27,413	"
1827,	397	do do	39,327	"
1828,	469	do do	45,915	"
1829,	489	do do	47,100	"
1830,	644	do do	63,137	"
1831,	563	do do	55,640	"
1832,	1,592	do do	158,442	"
1833,	2,010	do do	198,168	"
1834,	1,575	do do	156,154	"
1835,	2,361	do do	267,139	"
1836,	3,225	do do	344,812	"

During the subsequent nine years, the returns are incomplete.

During the year 1846, there were cleared from Richmond, the depot of the Reading Railroad Company—

Ships,	-	-	-	-	1
Barks,	-	-	-	-	23
Brigs,	-	-	-	-	341
Schooners,	-	-	-	-	4,092
Sloops,	-	-	-	-	935
Steamboats,	-	-	-	-	14
Barges,	-	-	-	-	928
Boats,	-	-	-	-	1,150
Total,	-	-	-	-	7,485

The quantity of coal (Schuylkill) shipped in the above vessels amounted to 883,489 tons.

During the same period, there cleared from Philadelphia and Bristol, laden with Lehigh Coal, fourteen hundred and sixty-eight vessels, exclusive of boats, carrying 181,792 tons. As far as ascertained, these vessels comprised—

Barks,	-	-	-	-	2
Brigs,	-	-	-	-	135
Schooners,	-	-	-	-	682
Sloops,	-	-	-	-	178
Barges,	-	-	-	-	186
Steamboats,	-	-	-	-	3
Class unknown.	-	-	-	-	282
Total,	-	-	-	-	1468

Total number of clearances from the port of Philadelphia in 1846, eight thousand, nine hundred and fifty-three vessels, carrying one million, sixty-five thousand, two hundred and twenty-eight tons of coal, in addition to the quantity shipped in boats from the Lehigh mines.

The quantity of coal which passed through the Delaware and Raritan Canal, to New York, has been as follows:—

In 1842,	-	-	-	171,754 tons.
1843,	-	-	-	198,332 "
1844,	-	-	-	267,496 "
1845,	-	-	-	372,072 "
1846,	-	-	-	339,924 "

The three Anthracite Coal fields of Pennsylvania, are each about 65 miles in length, and 5 miles in width, embracing an area of 325 square miles, or 208,000 acres each. The aggregate is 975 square miles, or 624,000 acres.

We estimate the supply of Anthracite Coal for 1847, at 2,800,000 tons. The value of this quantity at \$4 per ton, which may be taken as the average price at tide-water, is \$11,200,000. The importance of this trade to the City of Philadelphia, while it is great in other respects, is shown strongly in the fact that a large portion of the coal lands are owned there, and the revenue therefor, reverts to its citizens. The constantly increasing use of this fuel in other parts of the country, tends to keep the balance of trade with other cities in favor of Philadelphia; and this tendency must increase with the increasing demand for coal. The coal trade of Great Britain has made the Port of Newcastle, which would otherwise be an unimportant place, second only to London in the amount of its shipping. A similar effect the coal trade may have upon the Port of Philadelphia, making it the great shipping port of the Union.

It is interesting and amusing to look back to the first attempts to use the Anthracite Coal, and to bring it to market. Charles Miner, Esq., of Wilkesbarre, in his published account of his first efforts, in connection with Mr. Cist and other associates, relates some pleasant anecdotes.

A hunter had first discovered the black earth which covers the coal at Mauch Chunk, and reported the discovery to Jacob Weiss, Esq., of Lehigh, who caused an examination to be made, and found Anthracite Coal within ten feet of the surface. The land, which had not been appropriated, was immediately taken out of the land office, and a company was formed, which partially opened the mine, and brought some small parcels of coal to Philadelphia. The difficulty of kindling the coal prevented its introduction into use, and the project slept for twenty years. During the war with Great Britain, bituminous coal rose to high prices. Judge Jesse Fell had shown that Anthracite Coal could be burned in grates, and it had been for several years used in Wilkesbarre and the neighboring towns. The demand for fuel in Philadelphia now led Mr. Miner and Mr. Cist to contrive a plan for mining and transporting the Mauch Chunk coal. On the 9th of August, 1814, they started off their first ark from Mauch Chunk. "In less than eighty rods from the place of starting, the ark struck on a ledge, and broke a hole in her bow. The lads stripped themselves nearly naked, to stop the rush of water with their clothes." In six days, however, the ark reached Philadelphia with its 24 tons of coal, which had by this time cost fourteen dollars a ton. "But," says Mr. Miner, "we had the greater difficulty to overcome of inducing the public to use our coal, when brought to their doors. We published handbills, in English and German, stating the mode of burning the coal, either in grates, in smiths' fires, or in stoves. Together we went to several houses in the city, and prevailed on the masters to allow us to kindle fires of Anthracite in their grates, erected to burn Liverpool coal. We attended at blacksmiths' shops, and persuaded some to alter the *Too-iron*, so that they might burn the Lehigh coal; and we were sometimes obliged to bribe the journeymen to try the experiment fairly, so averse were they to learning the use of a new sort of fuel."

How like a fable all this seems at the present day! As we sit before our coal fires, and think of no other, how little do we realize that thirty years ago Mr. Miner and Mr. Cist were trying the experiment of an Anthracite fire at Wilkesbarre, and wondering whether they could not float an ark load of the coal to Philadelphia! Now we are reckoning the coal trade in millions of tons!

In the Schuylkill region the effort was made a little earlier. In 1812, Col. George Shoemaker loaded nine wagons with coal at the place now known as the Centreville Mines, and proceeded to Philadelphia. "Much time was spent by him in endeavoring to introduce it to notice, but all his efforts proved unavailing. Those who deigned to try it, declared Col. Shoemaker to be an impostor for attempting to impose stone on them for coal, and were clamorous against him. Not discouraged by the sneers cast upon him, he persisted in the undertaking, and at last succeeded in disposing of two loads, for the cost of transportation, and the remaining seven, he gave to persons who promised to try to use it, and lost all the coal and charges."

THE MANUFACTURE OF IRON.

The earliest iron works in Britain were in the forest of Dean, where, says a quaint historian, "abundance of wood is yearly spent." In the reign of Elizabeth, the effect of the iron works in producing a scarcity of timber for ship-building was felt; and in 1581 an act was passed requiring that, inasmuch as "the necessary provision of wood doth daily decay and become scant," no new iron works should be erected within twenty-two miles of London, nor within fourteen miles of the river Thames; and a subsequent act ordered that "no timber of the size of one foot at the stub, should be used as fuel, at any iron work." In the reigns of James I. and Charles I. attempts were made to smelt iron with pit-coals, but without success; and the iron works in many parts were stopped entirely, and in others diminished their operations.

About 1620, Edward Lord Dudley discovered a process for the use of pit-coal, and obtained a patent. He erected a furnace, and succeeded in making seven tons of iron per week; but the mob destroyed his works, and defeated his plans, and it was a century before his process came into general use.

A historian, writing in the reign of Charles II., says—"Very many measures of iron stone ore are placed together under the great ten yards thickness of coal; and upon another thickness of coal two yards thick, not yet mentioned, called the bottom coal, or heathern coal, as if God had decreed the time when and how smiths should be supplied, and this island also, with iron; and most especially that this coal and iron-stone should give the first and last occasion for the invention of making iron with pit-coal." The same writer states that in the twelfth year of James I., there were in England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales, 800 furnaces, forges or iron-mills, making iron with charcoal. Of these he reckons 300 to have been blast furnaces, each making 15 tons of pig iron per week, and some 20 tons, working 40 weeks in the year; the forges making from three to six tons of bar iron per week.

For want of a supply of fuel, the quantity of iron manufactured in Great Britain steadily decreased, although the demand increased. Recourse was therefore had to foreign countries. From 1710 to 1718 the quantity imported from foreign countries annually, (being chiefly from Sweden and Spain,) averaged about 17,000 tons, and the duty upon it about £35,000. As late as 1769, there were imported from Russia alone, 34,000 tons.

In 1775 commenced a new period in the history of the iron manufacture. Mr. Watt's improved steam-engine then came into use, for pumping water from the mines, and for blowing furnaces. In 1783 Mr. Cort obtained two patents, one for the process called puddling, and the other for rolling machines. These advantages led to a rapid increase in the manufacture of iron.

In 1788 there were in England, Wales and Scotland, the following furnaces:—

Charcoal furnaces,	.	.	26	making	14,500 tons.
Coke	"	"	59	"	53,800 "
			<hr/>		
		Total	85		68,300 "

In 1796 there were, in all, 121 furnaces, making 125,079 tons.

In 1806, an accurate return was made to parliament, which showed the following result:—

Coke furnaces	.	.	222	making	250,406 tons.
Charcoal "	"	"	11	"	7,800 "
			<hr/>		
		Total	233		258,206 "

1823,	furnaces	259	*442,066
1830,	"	360	*653,416
1839,	"	378	1,347,790
1841,	" not stated		1,387,551

It is estimated that the annual manufacture of iron in Great Britain has now reached two millions of tons. In Scotland the manufacture was found to have trebled in six years prior to 1845. At the beginning of June, 1846, there were in blast in Scotland, 95 furnaces; out of blast, 35; making a total of 130. The furnaces in blast at that time produced an average of 110 tons per week each; or at the rate of 543,400 tons a year for all.

The quantity of iron imported into Great Britain in 1839, was 24,360 tons; the most of which came from Sweden.

The *hot blast* (one of the most important inventions in the history of the iron manufacture), was first suggested in 1829, by Mr. Neilson of Glasgow, who took out a patent. This discovery, being found of greater value in Scotland than in England, on account of some peculiarity of the Scotch coal, greatly increased the iron manufacture of that country. A Scotch manufacturer, in writing on the subject, pronounces the hot blast "one of the greatest discoveries in metallurgy of the present age."

In 1838, Mr. Crane, an iron-master in South Wales, made known to the British Association, that he had succeeded in applying the hot blast to the *anthracite coal*, with complete success! This step in the progress of discovery, opened a new world in Pennsylvania. The news of it made known to us the great design of our vast anthracite coal deposits.

In Russia, iron-ores have been known from time immemorial, but we have no information respecting mining operations in early periods. In 1569 the English obtained by treaty, the privilege of seeking for and smelting iron ore, on condition that they should teach the Russians the art of working this metal, and pay, on the exportation of every pound, one half-penny. Peter the Great himself wrought in the iron works, before he set out in 1698, on his first journey into foreign countries. Remaining some time in Saxony, he not only made himself acquainted with the arts of mining, but requested the King of Poland to give him some workmen, and in the following year twelve were obtained. In 1719, Lieut.-Col. Henning, by order of the emperor, traveled through several countries of Europe to collect information respecting mines and foundries, and on his return, wire manufactories, forges for steel, &c., were set up.

All iron works erected with the assistance of the crown, pay a tax of about six cents on each pood of raw iron, and those without that assistance, about four cents. The pood is 36 English pounds. For every forge the owner pays the crown 200 rubles yearly, or about \$184.

The number of people employed in some of the iron works in Russia is as-

* Exclusive of North Wales, which for 1823 is estimated at 10,000 tons, and for 1830, at 25,000.

tonishing. At the crown mines of Barnaul 48,000 boors are employed. The iron works of the Stroganof family have about them and on the district belonging to the family, 83,000 vassals of the male sex! Many of the private works get rise to villages, which are in size and population like our cities.

The Barnaul mines afford some ore which yields from 50 to 60 per cent. of iron. But 25 per cent. is more common.

The exports of iron from all the ports of Russia except those of the Caspian, in 1793, were:

	Poods.	Value in Rubles.
Bar iron	2,503,757	4,258,228
Sorted	491,575	901,464
Cast ironware	37,917	44,433

The ruble is 3s 1d sterling, and is divided into 100 copecks.

In 1828 there were in the Russian dominions 19 foundries, forges and mines belonging to the crown, and 148 establishments belonging to private families.

The exports of bar-iron from St. Petersburg to America were as follows in the years specified:—

1783,	poods	6,615
1785,	"	38,618
1792,	"	132,380
1794,	"	256,635
1797,	"	112,260
1804,	"	278,264

The exportation of iron from Russia has been upon the decline since 1784.

Sweden has long been celebrated for its iron. In 1740 there were 496 foundries for making bar-iron and other iron manufactures, which produced 40,600 tons. In that year the government established an office to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at so low a rate as four per cent.

In 1833 there were in Sweden from 330 to 340 smelting furnaces, producing about 90,000 tons of pig-iron. The smelting furnaces are licensed for a particular quantity. These licenses are granted by the College of Mines, which has a control over all the iron works and mining operations. The iron-masters make annual returns of their manufacture, which must not exceed their privilege; on pain of the overplus being confiscated.

The iron mine of Dannemora is the most celebrated in Sweden. It has been wrought for four centuries, and still yields abundance of the best iron in Europe. It was first wrought as a silver mine. The annual yield of this mine is about 4000 tons, the whole of which is sent to the house of Messrs. Sykes, in Hull, England, where it is known by the name of the Oreground iron, taking its name from the port at which it is shipped. The first or best mark is L., which sells at £40 per ton; while the best Russian mark, the C. C. N. D., is seldom higher than £20 per ton.

The cause of the superiority of the Dannemora iron has never been explained. Some chemists ascribe it to the presence of manganese. Berzelius attributed it to the presence of silica in the metal, while others suppose it to arise from the nature of the process employed.

The exports of iron from Sweden to the United States from 1830 to 1838, were as follows:—

	Bars.	Other Iron.
1830,	- - - - 15,532	- 422
1831,	- - - - 23,133	- 683
1832,	- - - - 20,002	- 1,222
1833,	- - - - 20,644	- 343

1834,	-	-	-	-	19,618	-	287
1835,	-	-	-	-	28,728	-	476
1836,	-	-	-	-	27,342	-	560
1837,	-	-	-	-	10,709	-	151
1838,	-	-	-	-	25,669	-	585

The total exports in 1838 were 81,754 tons.

Spain has iron of excellent quality. It is probably more ductile than any other. But Spain has never manufactured to any great extent.

An ancient writer (Diodorus Siculus) says:—"The Celterberians make weapons and darts in an admirable manner; for they bury plates of iron so long under ground, until the rust hath consumed the weaker part, and so the rest becomes more strong and firm. Of this they make swords and other warlike weapons, and with these arms thus tempered, they so cut through everything in their way, that neither shield, helmet nor bone can withstand them."

In France, also, the manufacture of iron has much increased within the past few years. In 1819, there were produced 742,000 quintals of iron (of 100 pounds each). In 1830, the quantity manufactured was 1,484,685 quintals, and in 1845, 3,422,643 quintals. The value of all the work performed in smelting the ore and of all the manufactures of iron and steel, is estimated at 166,112,789 francs.

Iron ores are abundant in the United States. Those hitherto worked are chiefly the magnetic oxyd, brown hematite, the argillaceous oxyd, and bog-ore, a variety of the limonite.

In New Hampshire, the magnetic oxyd is found. In Vermont, Rhode Island and Connecticut, the brown hematite. In Massachusetts, bog-ore. In New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania where iron is most abundant, are found the magnetic and argillaceous oxyds, brown hematite and specular. To these may be added, the carbonate of iron, which has been recently smelted, and produces iron having the carbonaceous impregnation of steel. Maryland also has iron ore, and the iron of Virginia, Tennessee and Connecticut is highly esteemed. In New Jersey, there are twelve furnaces, and sixty-three forges.

It is our intention to follow the historical sketch, which we have given, with statements of the production and manufacture of iron in the several states. In this number, we commence with Pennsylvania, and have only room for a part of our tables of the iron statistics of that state. We here embrace the opportunity to remark, that it is impossible for us, within the compass of a single number, to insert statistical notices of every portion of the Union, or to include within it every subject important and interesting to the reader, and appropriate to the work.

Within the year, we hope to do all this, and thus to carry out our design in this department of the Register.

The following tables are taken from the coal and iron statistics of Pennsylvania, prepared by C. G. Childs, Esq.

Iron Works of Pennsylvania.

NAME OF COUNTY.	CAST IRON.		BAR IRON.		FUEL.	Number of men employed, including mining operations.	Capital invested.
	Number of Furnaces.	Tons produced.	Number of bloomeries, forges, and rolling mills.	Tons produced.	Tons of fuel consumed.		
Adams	3	50			40	10	\$10,000
Allegheny	28	6,584	12	28,100	74,187	1,305	1,931,000
Armstrong	3	1,031			1,052	141	48,000
Beaver	4	260			201	28	30,000
Bedford	9	7,765	2	8,398	14,497	821	253,000
Berks	11	8,220	36	6,569	42,245	1,185	655,644
Bradford	2	45			20	8	1,800
Butler	3	625			1,175	25	16,500
Centre	7	7,500	9	10,110	20,400	603	398,000
Chester	3	1,619	10	2,031	8,677	245	198,000
Clinton	2	1,692	4	663	10,598	905	360,000
Clearfield	1						
Columbia	2	1,300			2,000	80	80,000
Crawford	2	100			125	10	7,500
Cumberland	6	2,830	5	2,150	10,600	400	110,000
Dauphin	3	3,000	3	466	5,537	224	120,000
Delaware	1	100			150	12	20,000
Erie	1	100			150	20	15,000
Fayette	9	1,800	3	703	4,050	292	70,000
Franklin	8	3,810	11	1,125	8,653	518	258,500
Huntingdon	20	13,855	27	14,093	39,367	1,357	780,100
Indiana	1	80	1	30	170	19	18,000
Lancaster	11	6,912	14	2,090	16,525	784	420,500
Lebanon	3	3,020	3	297	6,108	231	233,000
Lehigh	1	600	1	3,000	4,714	93	20,500
Luzerne	6	870	1	86	955	88	43,000
Lycoming	4	600	3	270	1,230	125	283,000
Mercer	4	59			26	11	4,712
Mifflin	4	1,904	2	600	3,365	207	144,500
Montgomery	4	1,150	5	640	17,200	284	100,000
Northampton	6	3,523	4	910	6,227	164	95,000
Perry	8	2,951	2	1,300	16,152	339	303,150
Philadelphia	3	287	1	1,752	4,650	25	314,050
Schuylkill	4	2,109	3	365	8,942	138	107,000
Somerset	1		1	20	50	9	1,000
Union	2	355	1	150	427	39	22,000
Venango	16	6,546	1	208	10,120	462	232,000
Warren	3	30			18	7	3,360
York	4	5,113	4	1,118	15,200	308	73,655
Total,	213	98,395	169	87,244	355,903	11,522	7,751,470

In 1846 there were 206 charcoal furnaces, making 173,369 tons; and 7 anthracite furnaces, making 16,487 tons.

In 1839, the long sought discovery was made of using *anthracite* coal for:

smelting in furnaces and rolling mills. This has given a new impetus to the business, in which Pennsylvania must take the lead, as anthracite coal is almost confined to this State. This discovery aroused the energy of the bituminous coal operators, and introduced into the State the process of coke pig iron, so long and successfully practised in England.

The following table contains a complete list of the anthracite furnaces in Pennsylvania at the present time, (April, 1847,) with their annual products. The increase of this branch of the iron trade in the State, has no parallel in history.

*Anthracite Furnaces erected since 1839, and in blast in 1847 ;
with their annual product.*

NAMES OF WORKS.	PROPRIETORS.	PRODUCT.	
		No.	Tons.
Allentown,	Bevan & Humphreys,	2	7,000
Birdsboro',	E. & G. Brooks,	1	1,750
Bloomsburg,	Paxton, Fisher & Co.,	2	8,500
Conshohocken,	Stephen Colwell,	1	3,000
Chickaningo,	E. Haldeman,	1	2,500
Henry Clay,	Eckert & Brother,	1	4,500
Clay,	J. Platt,	1	1,750
Columbia,	J. & P. Groves,	1	2,000
Haldeman,	P. Haldeman,	1	1,500
Harrisburg,	David R. Porter,	1	3,500
Lackawanna,	Scranton & Co.,	2	3,500
Lehigh Crane Iron Co.,	Crane Iron Co.,	3	13,000
Lebanon,	Coleman,	2	7,000
Lightstreet,			1,500
Montour Iron Works,	Montour Iron Co.,	4	15,000
Mauch Chunk,	S. & W. L. Richards,	1	1,500
	J. McDowell,	1	1,500
Phœnix Works,	Reeves, Buck & Co.,	3	12,000
Pioneer,	G. G. Palmer,	1	1,800
William Penn,	Livingston & Lyman,	1	3,250
Red Point,	Samuel R. Wood,	1	3,750
Roaring Creek,	S. R. Wood,	1	2,000
Shamokin,	Shamokin Iron Co.,	1	2,500
Shawnee,	Holmes, Myers & Co.,	1	1,750
Spring Mill,	Kunzi & Farr,	1	2,500
St. Clair,	Burd Patterson,	2	3,500
Sarah Ann,	Porter & Stewart,	1	2,000
Valley,	Pomeroy & Harrison,	1	1,750
		40	121,800

In Progress of Erection.

Malinda,	Blair & Madden,	2,500
Franklin,	George Moss & Co.,	3,000
Phœnixville,	Reeves, Buck & Co.,	4,000
Safe Harbor,	Reeves, Wolf & Co.,	4,500

Out of Blast.

Elizabeth, at South Easton, two, product tons, 4,000

The discovery of the process of making anthracite iron, and the reduced price at which it can be manufactured, induced a number of capitalists to put up extensive Rolling Mills.

In 1845, the first bar of railroad iron was manufactured in the United States. Since that period, various establishments have gone into operation, and about

45,000 tons can now be manufactured annually, in this State alone, and 100,000 tons in the United States.

Anthracite Rolling Mills.

The following rolling mills have been erected and put into operation in this State, within the last four years. The annual product and the kind of iron manufactured at each mill are added:—

	ANNUAL PRODUCTS, TONS.
1—Montour Iron Works—Danville—Murdock, Leavitt & Co., make Iron Rails,	10,000
Do. do. Plate do.	1,000
2—Wilkesbarre—T. T. Payne—Rail and Plate,	6,000
3—Great Western—Great Western Iron Co.—Rails and Plates,	10,000
4—Harrisburg—Burke—Plate,	1,500
5—Philadelphia—Thos. Hunt—Rails,	2,000
6— do. —Robinson & Verree—Plate,	1,200
7— do. —Leibert and Wainwright—Rails,	4,000
8— do. —Thomas & Ogden—Bar and Rod,	2,000
9— do. —James Rowland, 2 mills—Plate and Round,	4,500
10—Manayunk—B. & C. B. Buckley—Plate,	500
11—Phoenixville—Reeves, Buck & Co.—Rails,	12,000
12—Norristown—Moore & Hooven—Merchant Bar,	2,000
13—Pottsgrove—Potts—Merchant Bar,	2,000
14—Pine Grove—Joseph Bailly—Plate,	850
15—Reading—Sabata & Co., } Axle, }	
16— do. —Jones & Co., } Small Iron, }	1,000
17— do. —Seyfort & McManus—Bar and Nails,	2,500
18—Little Schuylkill—Small Iron,	500
19—Lackawanna—Scranton & Co.—Plate and Rails,	6,000
Total tons,	69,500

In our subsequent numbers, we purpose to continue our tables, completing the statements for Pennsylvania, and giving full statistical accounts of the production and manufacture of iron, in the other states of the Union.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The statistics of the old provinces were obscure and uncertain at the commencement of the revolution; but the population at that time could not have amounted to more than 2,500,000. After the peace, a census of the population has been taken every ten years.

In 1790 the number of the inhabitants in the old states amounted to 3,929,827, including 629,697 slaves, and also the population of Vermont, which had increased to 85,530; and that of Kentucky, into which emigration rushed with rapidity from the New England States, amounting to 173,677. The slave population were distributed as follows:—158 in New Hampshire; 16 in Vermont; 948 in Rhode Island; 2764 in Connecticut; 21,324 in New York; 11,423 in New Jersey; 8,887 in Delaware; 3,737 in Pennsylvania; 103,036 in Maryland; 292,627 in Virginia; 100,572 in North Carolina;

107,094 in South Carolina; 29,264 in Georgia; 12,430 in Kentucky, and 3,417 in different territories. Total slaves in 1790—629,697.

In 1800, the population increased to 5,305,925, including 896,849 slaves.

In 1810 the census gave 6,048,539 free, and 1,191,364 slaves. Total, 7,239,814.

In 1820, the number of freemen were 8,100,108, and of slaves 1,538,118. Total, 9,638,131.

In 1830, the returns gave 10,857,177 free, and 2,009,043 slaves. Total 12,866,920 inhabitants.

By the census of 1840, the total number of the population was 17,062,566, consisting of 7,249,266 free males, and 6,939,842 free females. Total free, 14,189,108, and of 186,467 free colored males, and 199,778 free colored females. Total free colored, 386,245: of 1,246,408 male slaves, and 1,240,805 female slaves. Total slaves, 2,487,213.

In *Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont and Michigan*, there were no slaves; in *New Hampshire*, 1 female slave; in *Rhode Island*, 5 female slaves; in *Connecticut*, 17 female slaves; in *New York*, 4 slaves; in *Ohio*, 3; in *Indiana*, 3; in *New Jersey*, 674; in *Pennsylvania*, 64; in *Delaware*, 2,505; in *Maryland*, 89,495; in *Virginia*, 449,187; in *North Carolina*, 245,317; in *South Carolina*, 327,038; in *Georgia*, 280,944; in *Alabama*, 253,530; in *Mississippi*, 195,211; in *Louisiana*, 167,822; in *Tennessee*, 183,058; in *Kentucky*, 182,258; in *Illinois*, 271; in *Missouri*, 58,240; in *Arkansas*, 19,953; in *Florida* territory, 25,713; in *Wisconsin* territory, 11; in *Iowa* territory, 16; in the district of *Columbia*, 4,695 slaves.

The decennial increase per cent. of the population has been as follows, viz: in the ten years ending 1800, 35.01 per cent.; 1810, 36.45 per cent.; 1820, 33.35 per cent.; 1830, 33.26 per cent.; 1840, 32.67 per cent. The commissioner of patents estimates the population of the United States during 1847 at 20,746,400.

The emigration to this country, from Europe, has increased steadily up to this time. In 1831, the number of foreigners who arrived in our ports was 15,713, and in 1840, 86,338. What effect the recent agitations in Europe will produce on emigration, cannot be certainly predicted. The whole number of emigrants from 1830 to 1840, is estimated at 540,000, and since that period the influx has been much greater. The low price of land in the west, and the high prices of labor, are strong inducements to the laboring classes of Europe to leave their homes, and seek a sure living and competence in America.

In 1850, if the population of the United States shall have increased, as is probable, in the same ratio as during the ten years ending 1840, the total number will be about 22,500,000, of which number the slaves will amount probably to not more than *three* millions, as no slaves are imported, and as the slave population has not increased in the same ratio as the free. The numbers of the male and female slaves at present are about equal. The following table exhibits the population of the several states up to the last census.

State, &c.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,955	501,793
N. H.	141,899	183,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	284,574
Vt.	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948
Mass.	378,717	423,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699
R. I.	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830
Conn.	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,665	309,978
N. Y.	340,120	586,756	959,949	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921
N. J.	184,139	211,949	249,555	277,575	320,823	373,306
Penn.	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033
Del.	59,098	64,273	72,674	72,739	76,748	78,085
Md.	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	469,232
D. C.	14,093	24,023	33,069	39,834	43,712
Va.	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797
N. C.	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419
S. C.	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	587,185	594,398
Ga.	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392
Ala.	20,845	127,901	309,527	590,756
Miss.	8,850	40,352	75,548	136,621	375,651
La.	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411
Ark.	14,273	30,388	97,574
Tenn.	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210
Ky.	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828
Ohio	45,365	230,760	581,434	937,403	1,519,467
Mich.	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267
Ind.	4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866
Ill.	12,282	55,211	157,455	476,183
Mo.	20,845	66,586	140,445	383,702
Wis.	30,945
Iowa	43,112
Fla.	34,730	54,477
Texas
	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,638,131	12,866,920	17,062,566

[Under the head of agricultural statistics, will be found the estimate in detail, by the commissioner of patents, of the population of each state, in 1847, received too late to be inserted in its appropriate place.]

In connection with these statistics of population, we give the popular vote for President at the election of 1844, and the estimate of the electoral vote of the States in 1848.

Presidential Election of 1844.

STATES.	Scattering.	Clay.	Polk.
Maine	4,862	34,619	45,964
New Hampshire	4,161	17,866	27,160
Vermont	3,954	28,770	18,041
Massachusetts	10,830	67,009	53,034
Rhode Island	5	7,322	4,846
Connecticut	1,943	32,832	29,841
New York	15,812	232,482	237,588
New Jersey	131	38,318	37,495
Pennsylvania	3,138	161,203	167,535
Maryland		35,984	32,676
Virginia		44,790	50,683
North Carolina		43,232	39,287
South Carolina, elected by Legislature			
Georgia		42,104	44,048
Alabama		26,035	37,497
Mississippi		20,127	25,907
Louisiana		13,083	13,782
Tennessee		60,030	59,917
Kentucky		61,262	51,980
Ohio	8,050	155,057	149,117
Michigan	3,638	24,137	27,587
Indiana	2,106	67,867	70,181
Illinois	3,570	45,579	58,345
Missouri		31,250	41,324
Arkansas		5,504	9,546

Recapitulation of Presidential Elections.

YEAR.	NO. OF VOTES.
1844	2,702,549
1840	2,402,658
1836	1,501,298
1832	1,290,498
1828	1,162,418

Majorities of Electoral Votes.

Polk over Clay in 1844	65
Harrison over Van Buren in 1840	174
Van Buren over Harrison in 1836	97
Jackson over Clay in 1832	170
Jackson over Adams in 1828	95

Presidential Election of 1848.

The number of the States of our Union is thirty, and when Wisconsin is organized and elects Senators and members of the House of Representatives, which will be shortly done, the Senate of the United States will be composed of sixty Senators, and two hundred and thirty Representatives will form the popular branch of Congress. Each State, in 1848, will be entitled to a Presidential electoral vote equal to the number of its Senators and Representatives in Congress.

The electoral vote of the States in 1848 will be as follows:—

NO. VOTES.		NO. VOTES.		NO. VOTES.	
1. Maine	9	12. Pennsylvania	26	23. Alabama	9
2. N. Hampshire	6	13. Delaware	3	24. Missouri	7
3. Massachusetts	12	14. S. Carolina	9	25. Arkansas	3
4. Rhode Island	4	15. Georgia	10	26. Michigan	5
5. Connecticut	6	16. Kentucky	12	27. Florida	3
6. Vermont	6	17. Tennessee	13	28. Texas	4
7. Maryland	8	18. Ohio	23	29. Iowa	4
8. Virginia	17	19. Louisiana	6	30. Wisconsin	4
9. N. Carolina	11	20. Mississippi	6		
10. New York	36	21. Indiana	12	Total electoral votes	290
11. N. Jersey	7	22. Illinois	9		

Recapitulation of the popular Presidential vote of 1844.

Polk's majority over Clay, exclusive of S. Carolina	39,340
Majority of Polk and Birney over Clay	101,663
Majority of Clay and Birney over Polk	22,983

No. Electoral Votes for each Candidate or Party at the last five Presidential Elections.

States.	1828.		1832.		1836.		1840.		1844.	
	Jackson.	Adams.	Jackson.	Whig.	Van Buren.	Whig.	Harrison.	Van Buren.	Polk.	Clay.
Maine	1	8	10		10		10		9	
N. H.		8	7		7			7	6	
Vt.		7		7		7				6
Mass.		15		14		14				12
R. I.		4		4	4		4			4
Conn.		8		8	8		8			6
N. Y.	20	16	42		42		42		36	
N. J.		8	8			8	8			7
Penn.	28		30		30		30		26	
Del.		3		3		3				3
Md.	5	6	3	5		10	10			8
Va.	24		23		23			23	17	
N. C.	15		15		15		15			11
S. C.	11							11	9	
Ga.	9		11			11	11		10	
Ala.	5		7		7			7	9	
Miss.	3		4		4		4		6	
La.	5		5		5		5		6	
Tenn.	11		15			15	15			13
Ky.	14			15		15	15			12
Ohio	16		21			21	21			23
Ind.	5		9			9	9		12	
Ill.	3		5		5			5	9	
Mo.	3		4		4			4	7	
Mich.					3		3		5	
Ark.					3			3	3	
	178	83	219	56	170	113	234	60	170	105

Note.—In 1832, the electoral votes of Vermont (7) were given for Mr. Wirt, and those of South Carolina (11) for Mr. Floyd—all the rest for Jackson and Clay.

In 1836, the votes of Massachusetts (14) were given for Mr. Webster, those of Tennessee (15) and Georgia (11) for Mr. White, and those of South Carolina (11) for Mr. Mangum—all the rest for Harrison and Van Buren.

In 1828, 1840, and 1844, there were but two candidates.

STATISTICS OF COTTON.

The cultivation, growth, and uses of cotton have become more important than the production of any other raw material, except iron.

The use of cotton was not known in Europe until the tenth century. It is indigenous in Africa, but it was not woven into cloth until the fifteenth century. In Asia, its use was understood in the days of Herodotus. In America, it was cultivated before the discovery by Columbus, who exchanged with the natives, beads and brass for cotton yarn. Cortez sent from Mexico to Spain presents of "cotton cloth of exquisite fabric."

Cotton was not cultivated by Europeans in America as an article of merchandize until the middle or end of the seventeenth century. In 1726, it formed a staple export from St. Domingo. In 1733, it was raised in Surinam by the Dutch. Cotton patches were common in the settlements of Carolina about the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century. In 1783, an American vessel carried to England eight bales of cotton of American production. In 1791, the export was sixty-four bales of 300 pounds each. In 1792, the cotton gin was invented by Eli Whitney, of Massachusetts, which gave a powerful impetus to the production of cotton. The following table shows the increase of the crop for several successive years—

Cotton crop of the United States since 1825.

In 1825,	560,000 bales.	In 1836,	1,360,725 bales.
1826,	710,000	1837,	1,422,930
1827,	937,000	1838,	1,801,497
1828,	712,000	1839,	1,360,532
1829,	857,744	1840,	2,177,835
1830,	976,845	1841,	1,634,945
1831,	1,038,848	1842,	1,683,574
1832,	987,477	1843,	2,378,875
1833,	1,070,438	1844,	2,030,409
1834,	1,205,394	1845,	2,395,000
1835,	1,254,328	1846,	—

The cotton crop of 1847, is estimated at 1,026,500,000 pounds, and worth about \$75,000,000.

The exports of cotton from the United States to Great Britain from September, 1828, to September, 1829, were 498,000 bales, and to France, 184,821. Of the crop of that year, 120,593 bales were manufactured at home.

We present a statement of the value of the exports and amount consumed in this country since that period.

Year.	Bales consumed	Value exported.	Year.	Bales consumed.	Value exported.
1829	118,853	\$1,259,457	1838	246,061	\$3,758,755
1830	126,512	1,318,183	1839	276,018	2,975,033
1831	182,142	1,126,313	1840	295,193	3,549,607
1832	173,800	1,229,574	1841	297,288	3,122,546
1833	194,412	2,532,517	1842	292,360	2,970,690
1834	196,413	2,085,994	1843	325,000	3,223,550
1835	216,888	2,858,681	1844	347,000	2,898,780
1836	236,733	2,255,734	1845	389,000	4,327,928
1837	222,540	2,831,473	1846	—	3,545,481

The exports, up to the latest dates, have been as follows:—

Ports	March.	Exported to Great Britain since Sept. 1.		Exported to France since Sept. 1.		Total Exports to Foreign Ports since Sept. 1.	
		1847.	1846.	1847.	1846.	1847.	1846.
New Orleans,	18	237,103	166,276	113,712	48,936	462,407	258,114
Mobile,	18	76,144	52,698	52,288	17,259	145,796	80,790
Florida,	16	10,718	8,950	—	—	14,482	11,276
Texas,	11	—	—	—	—	772	543
Georgia,	24	43,660	84,709	5,177	7,558	50,248	92,611
South Carolina,	25	76,571	85,007	27,068	39,621	109,691	131,764
North Carolina,	25	—	—	—	—	—	—
Virginia,	1	18	150	—	—	258	150
New York,	28	46,848	36,733	37,307	26,662	113,172	86,919
Other ports,	25	3,764	947	1,412	425	5,644	1,864
Total bales,		494,826	434,870	236,964	140,461	902,470	664,031
Total last season,		434,870	—	140,461	—	664,031	—
Increase,		59,956	—	96,503	—	238,439	—

The receipts at the ports named, were 1,617,302 bales, being 187,942 bales more than the prior season, and the shipments to the northern ports of the United States were 347,902 bales, being an increase of 6,317.

It is estimated that our manufacturers consume now about \$12,000,000 worth of cotton, producing \$84,000,000 worth of goods.

In 1845, Great Britain exported to the United States, £1,056,240 worth of cotton manufactures, including cotton yarn, and in 1846, £1,133,657 worth of the same articles.

The imports into Great Britain in 1847, 1846 and 1845, with the stock in the ports at the close of each year, are stated to be as follows:

IMPORT.

	U. States.	Brazil, &c.	Egyptian.	East India.	Total.
Liverpool,	833,364	112,137	20,667	122,048	1,088,216
London,	2,681	977	—	77,426	81,084
Glasgow, &c.,	37,701	640	—	22,118	60,459
Total—1847,	873,746	113,754	20,667	221,592	1,229,759
1846,	991,110	97,220	60,520	94,670	1,243,520
1845,	1,500,369	120,023	81,423	155,045	1,856,860

STOCK.

	U. States.	Brazil, &c.	Egyptian.	East India.	Total.
Liverpool,	214,800	60,110	22,660	65,960	363,530
London,	620	640	—	47,740	49,000
Glasgow, &c.	22,435	679	3,491	11,974	38,579
Total—1847,	237,855	61,429	26,151	125,674	451,109
1846,	302,900	28,130	57,290	157,470	545,790
1845,	690,450	58,700	67,740	238,380	1,055,270

Exported from the Kingdom in 1847, 218,000 bales—ditto in 1846, 194,000 bales.

Particulars of the Stocks of Cotton in Liverpool on the 31st December, 1847, 1846 and 1845.

	1847.	1846.	1845.
Upland, - -	46,290	48,160	155,340
S. Island, - -	6,630	5,460	4,240
Orleans, - -	116,450	151,660	341,860
Alabama, - -	45,430	64,870	122,730
Brazil, &c., - -	60,110	26,080	57,910
Egyptian, - -	22,660	51,180	62,190
East India, - -	65,960	91,560	141,210
Total - -	363,530	438,970	885,480

Great Britain has been striving for some time past to raise her own cotton. Some years ago an East India Company, with a capital of £500,000, was set on foot for this purpose. The object of the company was to supply the English market with a cheaper and superior cotton of Indian growth, and as an inducement to capitalists to unite in the project, reference was made to a memorial of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, which stated—"That the quantity of cotton imported into Great Britain in the first eleven months of the year 1838, amounted to 1,374,316 bales, of the value of £14,000,000 sterling, in its unmanufactured state, of which only 96,113 bales were from the East Indies, of the value of about £600,000, or only five per cent. of the whole value of cotton imported, about ninety per cent. of our supply being drawn from foreign sources. That the value of the above quantity of cotton, in its manufactured state, was £40,000,000 sterling per annum, giving freight for 300,000 tons of shipping, and employment to upwards of 2,000,000 persons;" and concluded by pointing to India as an available, and at the same time a more desirable source of supply.

The same considerations have still a governing influence over the manufacturer and shipowner, and, combined with the desire of the government to get rid of its dependence on our country for a material which must be obtained at any sacrifice, have caused the anxiety now manifested by Great Britain to produce cotton within her own territories. In Turkey, too, the experiment has been made to raise cotton, and the French are attempting the same thing in Algeria.

Whilst these efforts are being made abroad in the *cultivation* of the raw material, an increase of the *manufacture* is very apparent in this country. The Southern States have lately turned their attention to the subject, and may at no very distant day compete with the north in the production of cotton fabrics. Eight large cotton manufactories are mentioned in South Carolina. One of them is an extensive establishment near Charleston, from which the best results are expected. Georgia and Tennessee are engaged in similar enterprises.

There are thirty-two cotton factories in Georgia in operation, or in progress of construction. There are employed in the buildings and working of these thirty-two factories, two millions of dollars. The number of hands engaged therein is nearly three thousand, and of persons directly receiving their support from the same, six thousand. The value of manufactured goods turned out by them last year fell nothing short of one and a half million of dollars. One third of these manufactured goods were sold out of the state, mostly in the northern markets, and partially in the valley of the Mississippi.

It is confidently asserted by some that the cotton factories of the south must surpass similar establishments elsewhere, as there can be no successful competition with factories established in the midst of the raw material.

A Georgia paper, on this subject, holds the following language:—

"Georgia and Tennessee are destined to become the great manufacturing states of the south, if not of the Union; because they have not only greater resources in proportion to their population, but being traversed in every direction by railroads and rivers, and having a double outlet both to the gulf and the Atlantic,

they will possess unparalleled advantages in regard to both the foreign and domestic markets. If our people would display one-half the energy and enterprise of the Yankees, in a quarter of a century from the present time we could surpass the whole of New England in wealth and population; indeed, all that we now lack to develop that enterprise and energy is the establishment of manufactories, and the more general introduction of machinery.

“Let us compare for a moment the agricultural wealth of the two states named, with that of New England. Georgia and Tennessee have together a population of 1,694,000; the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, have 2,422,000 souls. Now, let us see the relative products of the two sections as developed by the census of 1840, and by more recent statistics:—

	New England.	Georgia and Tennessee.
Corn - - -	11,943,000 bushels.	- 83,585,000 bushels.
Wheat - - -	2,898,000 “	- 9,911,000 “
Potatoes - - -	20,581,000 “	- 3,792,000 “
Rye - - -	2,582,000 “	- 448,000 “
Oats - - -	11,247,000 “	- 9,458,000 “
Buckwheat - - -	1,097,000 “	
Total	50,348,000 “	107,194,000 “

“In addition to this, Georgia and Tennessee produce annually about fifteen million pounds of rice, and probably 3,000,000 bushels sweet potatoes, none of which are raised in New England. They also have, according to the census of 1840, 1,906,851 neat cattle, and 4,484,362 swine; whereas the six New England States have but 1,545,273 neat cattle, and only 748,698 swine.

“Thus showing that, while we have a little over half the population of New England, we have more than double the capacity to feed them. Hence the fact that provisions are comparatively so much cheaper in these states than at the north, and hence the great advantage which we would have as competitors in manufacturing enterprise. In many parts of Georgia and Tennessee, operatives can live for less than one-half of what it would cost them at Lowell, or in any other of the great manufacturing cities of New England. Having this immense advantage in regard to provisions, and a corresponding advantage in procuring the raw material, why should our capitalists hesitate to invest their means in manufactures?”

It may not be deemed inappropriate to mention here, in connection with what has been stated relative to cotton fabrics, that we are now making *cotton duck*.

Formerly a great deal of money went from this country to Russia to pay for Russia duck, then used for ships, to the exclusion of every other article of the kind. In place of it, cotton duck is now extensively substituted, and is getting to be generally preferred; and instead of purchasing Russia duck abroad, we manufacture an excellent duck at home, out of materials of domestic growth. In the neighborhood of Baltimore, there are three large establishments for the manufacture of this article, all of which are conducted by one firm.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The value of exports and imports of the United States (exclusive of specie) as derived from official reports, embracing the year 1840, and up to the 1st July 1847, the termination of the fiscal year.

Years.	EXPORTS.			Imports.
	Domestic produce.	Foreign merchandize.	Total.	
1840	\$111,660,561	\$12,008,371	\$123,668,932	\$98,258,706
1841	103,636,236	8,181,235	111,817,471	122,957,544
1842	91,799,242	8,078,753	99,877,995	96,075,071
1843	77,686,354	5,139,335	82,825,689	42,433,464
1844	99,531,774	6,214,058	105,745,832	102,604,606
1845	98,455,330	7,584,781	106,040,111	113,184,322
1846	101,718,042	7,865,206	109,583,248	117,914,065
1847	150,574,844	6,166,039	156,740,883	122,124,349
In 1840, the excess of exports was	-	-	-	\$25,410,226
In 1846, " imports "	-	-	-	8,330,817
In 1847, " exports "	-	-	-	34,316,534
The export of specie in 1846 was	-	-	-	\$423,851
" " " 1847 "	-	-	-	62,620
The import of specie and bullion in 1846 was	-	-	-	\$3,777,732

Of the domestic produce exported in 1847, the amount exported to England was of the value of \$97,747,130, and to France \$19,277,992.

During the six months preceding 1st July, 1847, we received from England goods to the amount of \$54,707,468, from France \$14,388,742, from Spain \$12,617,113. The balance of trade in our favor in 1847, was, as above stated, \$34,316,534.

According to the statements from the Treasury,

In 1846 the amount of exports to Great Britain was	-	-	\$47,310,325
" " imports from "	-	-	38,047,095
" " exports to France	-	-	15,130,575
" " imports from "	-	-	23,911,532

In the same year (1846), of the total amount of exports, \$78,634,410 was exported in American vessels, and \$23,000,000 in foreign vessels.

The different articles exported were

The Sea—	-	-	\$3,453,308
The Forest—Skins and furs and ginseng	-	-	1,300,571
Product of wood	-	-	5,506,677
Agriculture—Product of animals	-	-	7,833,864
Vegetable food	-	-	19,329,586
Tobacco	-	-	8,578,270
Cotton	-	-	42,767,341
All other agricultural products	-	-	214,455
Manufactures—	-	-	4,921,995
Of cotton	-	-	3,545,481
Other fabrics	-	-	1,101,878
Lead	-	-	614,518
Wool	-	-	203,995
Articles not enumerated—Manufactured	-	-	1,379,566
Other	-	-	1,490,303

In the year 1847 the exports were very largely increased by the demand for breadstuffs.

The following table, copied from the Shipping and Commercial List, will show the export of breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland, for the year ending September 1, 1847:

FROM	Flour, bbls.	Cornmeal, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.
New York - - -	1,673,582	354,127	2,505,756	6,818,283
Philadelphia - - -	320,950	244,604	539,633	1,127,125
Baltimore - - -	304,263	82,926	101,376	1,687,996
Norfolk - - -	49,687	21,289	—	1,362,761
New Orleans - - -	671,335	71,175	818,770	5,186,330
Boston - - -	80,933	25,646	11,541	574,404
Other ports - - -	49,939	47,513	38,058	541,965
Total	3,150,689	847,280	4,015,134	17,298,744

In addition to which, 88,261 bushels of rye, 436,881 of oats, and 289,613 of barley were exported.

The exports from the city of New York alone, to Great Britain, Ireland, France and all foreign ports for 1847, were as follows:

	To Great Britain, &c.	France.	All foreign ports.
Flour - - - - -	bbls. 1,673,582	243,433	2,154,161
Corn meal - - - -	354,127	4,075	415,581
Wheat - - - - -	bush. 2,505,756	352,800	3,085,134
Corn - - - - -	6,818,263	5,772	6,964,952
Rye - - - - -	75,692	104,423	1,007,159
Oats - - - - -	367,791	3,368	416,486
Barley - - - - -	287,503	32	296,208

The following table, showing the exports of corn, flour and wheat, by months, though differing somewhat in its aggregate from the official figures given above, is still near enough correct to be of interest in illustrating the course of trade during the year:

	Corn, bushels.	Wheat Flour, bbls.	Rye Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.
1846.				
September - - -	117,949	87,195	505	151,765
October - - -	198,181	163,967	953	222,380
November - - -	367,350	115,161	489	303,121
December - - -	245,791	232,894	970	276,758
1847.				
January - - -	411,440	129,825	2,678	160,434
February - - -	814,922	136,313	1,343	149,217
March - - -	1,188,240	77,819	999	82,789
April - - -	1,052,042	100,551	5,629	74,059
May - - -	471,947	111,700	2,938	66,232
June - - -	766,883	342,080	2,985	397,437
July - - -	807,204	420,812	1,238	741,327
August - - -	402,781	189,031	572	305,086
	6,811,731	2,107,348	21,279	2,930,655

The total receipts by the Hudson river, from the opening of navigation to the middle of September, were 2,009,297 barrels of wheat flour, 94,395 do. cornmeal, 1,483,400 bushels of wheat, 2,843,841 do. of corn, and 192,635 do. of rye.

The annual trade report of *Philadelphia* shows the results of the last year to be—

		<i>Breadstuffs.</i>		
Flour	bbls.	420,597		Value \$2,792,773
Corn meal	"	300,451		1,341,024
Rye flour	"	20,396		99,436
Ship bread	"	45,588		144,205
Wheat	bushels	523,538		786,028
Corn	"	1,102,210		1,081,636
Rice	tierces	2,102		57,244
			Total value	\$6,302,346

The aggregate value of these articles is about twice that of last year.

In the first month of 1848, the quantity of foreign and domestic merchandize exported from the port of *New York*, is given in the following statistical statement:

		<i>To Great Britain.</i>		
Flour, bbls.	- - -	61,354	Whalebone, lbs.	- - - 3,300
Meal, "	- - -	4,532	Cheese, lbs.	- - - 1,783,010
Pork, "	- - -	252	Oil cake, lbs.	- - - 263,110
Beef, "	- - -	2,786	Bread, bbls.	- - - 912
Rice, tierces	- - -	196	Wheat, bushels	- - - 85,151
Lard, lbs.	- - -	288,112	Corn, "	- - - 164,166
Bacon, lbs.	- - -	783,314	Cotton, bales	- - - 4,043
Sperm oil, gals.	- - -	3,300	Butter, lbs.	- - - 1,412
Whale oil	- - -	40,442	Hemp, "	- - - 150,770
Tallow, lbs.	- - -	244,312	Flaxseed, lbs.	- - - 10,119

France.

Pork, bbls.	- - -	50	Cotton, bales	- - -	3,888
Beef, "	- - -	76	Tallow, lbs.	- - -	270,212
Hams, &c., lbs.	- - -	512	Whalebone, lbs.	- - -	84,512
Ashes, bbls.	- - -	-			

British West Indies

Flour, bbls.	- - -	4,643	Beef, bbls.	- - -	700
Rye flour, bbls.	- - -	79	Hams, lbs.	- - -	16,210
Corn, bushels	- - -	950	Butter, lbs.	- - -	21,111
Oats, "	- - -	660	Cheese, lbs.	- - -	21,313
Pork, bbls.	- - -	2,493	Lard, lbs.	- - -	26,718
Corn meal, bbls.	- - -	470	Sperm oil, gals.	- - -	140
Spirits turpentine, gals.	- - -	196	Whale oil, gals.	- - -	1,342
Bread, bbls.	- - -	1,228	Rice, tierces	- - -	208
Tobacco, leaf, hhds.	- - -	9	Wheat, bushels	- - -	800
Tobacco, manufac., lbs.	- - -	2,316			

British Colonies.

Flour, bbls.	- - -	2,308	Rye flour, bbls.	- - -	169
Corn, bushels	- - -	850	Pork, bbls.	- - -	263
Cheese, lbs.	- - -	2,000	Beef, bbls.	- - -	41
Tar, bbls.	- - -	145	Corn meal, bbls.	- - -	2,274
Oats, bushels	- - -	50	Bread	- - -	50
Rice, tierces	- - -	31			

Spanish West Indies.

Beef, bbls.	-	-	28	Wool	-	-	-	3,197
Bread, bbls.	-	-	8	Rice, tierces	-	-	-	53
Butter, lbs.	-	-	3,838	Lard, lbs.	-	-	-	8,712
Pork, bbls.	-	-	35	Cheese, lbs.	-	-	-	3,841
Hams, lbs.	-	-	37,621	Tar, bbls.	-	-	-	25

Brazils.

Flour, bbls.	-	-	4,430	Corn, bushels	-	-	-	98
Lard, lbs.	-	-	14,011	Pork, bbls.	-	-	-	67

Danish West Indies.

Flour, bbls.	-	-	924	Meal, bbls.	-	-	-	1,440
Hams, lbs.	-	-	4,615	Lard, lbs.	-	-	-	2,801
Butter, lbs.	-	-	200	Wool, lbs.	-	-	-	114
Beef, bbls.	-	-	417	Pork, bbls.	-	-	-	115
Rye flour, bbls.	-	-	180	Rice, tierces	-	-	-	1
Tobacco, hhds.	-	-	16					

St. Domingo.

Flour, bbls.	-	-	768	Hams, lbs.	-	-	-	7,101
Lard, lbs.	-	-	4,712	Butter, -	-	-	-	28,03
Beef, bbls.	-	-	205	Pork, bbls.	-	-	-	531
Cheese, lbs.	-	-	1,410	Rice, tierces	-	-	-	26

Belgium.

Spirits turpentine, gals.	-	-	13,291	Rosin, bbls.	-	-	-	1,450
Rice, tierces	-	-	1,051	Cotton, bales	-	-	-	696

Hamburg.

Ashes, bbls.	-	-	190	Cotton, bales	-	-	-	30
Rice, tierces	-	-	405	Hops, bales	-	-	-	20
Lard, lbs.	-	-	47,313	Spirits turpentine, gals.	-	-	-	12,057

Holland.

Ashes, bbls.	-	-	176	Cotton, bales	-	-	-	481
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The value of the merchandize imported into *Philadelphia* for the first quarter of 1848, is \$3,987,362, and exports for the same period \$1,784,828. These imports and exports exceed those of the corresponding period last year, but are limited when compared with New York, and smaller than those of Boston. The cash duties received by the collector of customs of *Philadelphia* during the first quarter of 1848 exceed those of the corresponding period of last year by \$250,000.

Comparative Statement of the weighable Foreign Merchandize imported into *Philadelphia*.

	1846.		1847.	
	Tons.	Cwt.	Tons.	Cwt.
Iron, Railroad,	-	73	0	0
— Rolled Bar,	-	2244	2726	1
— Hammered, Sheet, Rod and Hoop,	-	499	1686	12
— Pig,	-	226	440	18
— Old and Scrap,	-	26	52	11
— Castings,	-	94	54	4
— Chains, Cables and Anchors,	-	8	152	4
Steel,	-	287	272	17
Anvils,	-	85	68	12
Nails and Spikes,	-	22	23	7

	1846.		1847.	
	Tons.	Cwt.	Tons.	Cwt.
Hammers and Sledges, - - -	2	19	1	1
Iron Wire, - - - - -	2	3	3	3
Lead, Old and Pig, - - -	0	12	1	0
Hemp, - - - - -	7	4	0	0
Cordage, - - - - -	0	0	0	0
Tallow, - - - - -	0	0	0	0
Glassware, - - - - -	0	1	0	0
Sugar of Lead, Paints, &c., - - -	44	1	25	0
Bristles, - - - - -	0	0	0	4
Glue, - - - - -	0	0	0	0
Wool, - - - - -	110	19	76	17
Fish, Smoked and Dried, - - -	39	16	391	11
Cheese, - - - - -	0	2	0	13
Chocolate, - - - - -	0	3	0	2
Paper and Books, - - - - -	7	7	25	18
Cotton, - - - - -	0	0	0	1
Twine, - - - - -	16	1	0	15
Hams, - - - - -	0	14	0	9
Pork, - - - - -	00	0	0	0
Sugar, - - - - -	8752	5	24445	10
Coffee, - - - - -	7570	9	4420	1
Tea, Green, - - - - -	0	0	0	5
— Black, - - - - -	0	0	0	3
Cassia, - - - - -	0	0	0	0
Cocoa, - - - - -	75	0	0	6
Pimento, - - - - -	31	16	81	8
Indigo, - - - - -	58	10	57	7
Raisins, Prunes and Figs, - - -	832	1	343	12
Nutmegs, Mace and Cloves, - - -	0	1	6	14
Ginger, - - - - -	4	0	7	14
Almonds, - - - - -	19	4	87	13
Pepper, - - - - -	2	18	7	7
Rags, - - - - -	218	4	579	0
Bleaching Powders, - - - - -	49	5	97	19
Sulphate of Barytes, - - - - -	271	6	5	3
Saltpetre, refined, - - - - -	45	10	0	0
Cigars, - - - - -	27	1	0	0
Walnuts and Filberts, - - - - -	37	8	46	6
Drugs, - - - - -	10	12	102	12
Soda Ash, - - - - -	1571	3	2532	17
Tobacco, - - - - -	84	17	287	8
Currants, - - - - -	171	19	0	1
Wax, - - - - -	1	7	2	11

The progress of commerce in the Cities of *New York and Boston*, is shown in the annexed tables:—

Calendar Year.	Foreign Arrivals.	Foreign Commerce of New York.		
		Tons.	Foreign Imports.	Exports.
1821	912	171,963	\$26,020,012	\$12,124,644
1822	1172	226,790	33,912,453	15,405,696
1823	1217	226,789	30,601,455	21,089,692
1824	1364	252,799	37,785,147	22,309,369
1825	1436	280,179	50,024,973	34,032,279

Calendar Year.	Foreign Arrivals.	Tons.	Foreign Imports.	Exports.
1826	1389	274,997	34,728,664	19,437,225
1827	1414	292,872	41,441,832	24,614,037
1828	1277	275,677	39,117,016	22,135,480
1829	1310	281,512	34,972,493	17,609,604
1830	1489	314,715	38,656,064	17,666,629
1831	1634	337,009	57,291,727	26,142,719
1832	1808	401,718	50,995,924	22,792,593
1833	1926	430,918	56,527,976	24,723,901
1834	1932	444,904	72,224,390	22,196,065
1835	2044	464,464	89,304,108	29,035,753
1836	2285	556,730	118,886,194	27,455,220
1837	2071	539,372	68,374,558	23,534,618
1838	1790	468,890	77,214,729	22,182,243
1839	2159	565,335	97,078,687	36,662,220
1840	1953	527,594	56,845,924	30,186,479
1841	2118	549,025	75,268,015	30,731,516
1842	1962	555,315	52,415,555	23,090,190
1843	1832	491,494	50,036,667	23,440,322
1844	2208	593,373	75,749,220	34,628,442
1845	2044	621,350	69,332,299	32,891,669
1846	2293	703,165	70,269,791	36,393,863
1847	3147	965,050	95,036,257	52,879,274

Foreign Commerce of Boston.

1830	642		8,348,613	5,180,178
1831	766		13,411,809	5,896,092
1832	1064	168,930	15,760,512	10,107,768
1833	1067	177,344	17,853,446	8,062,219
1834	1156	188,308	15,514,700	7,309,761
1835	1302	200,628	18,643,800	7,952,346
1836	1451	223,531	25,898,955	8,475,313
1837	1591	233,043	15,027,837	7,836,270
1838	1313	208,891	13,463,465	7,036,878
1839	1552	227,422	18,409,186	8,003,536
1840	1628	257,143	14,123,308	8,404,314
1841	1790	286,812	18,908,242	9,392,252
1842	1738	270,711	16,027,450	7,226,084
1843	1716	247,215	20,662,567	8,535,364
1844	2174	311,529	22,141,788	8,194,726
1845	2305	316,026	21,591,877	9,270,830
1846	2090	302,901	21,284,800	8,245,821
1847	2739	372,572	46,110,761	10,513,132

Looking at the tonnage arrived at the two ports, it will be seen that in both cases it has rapidly increased, and in about a uniform ratio. In 1832, the tonnage of Boston was about two-fifths that of New York, and it is about the same at present. The absolute increase is of course much in favor of New York. The excess of New York tonnage over Boston, in 1832, was only 232,788 tons, whereas in 1847, it was 589,478. Gain of New York over Boston, in 15 years, 356,690 tons, being very nearly equal to the whole present tonnage of Boston. We speak of tonnage arrived from foreign countries. In respect to the value of imports, the fluctuations have been greater. During the last year (1847) the imports of Boston have taken a wonderful stride, being more than double those of any previous year, except 1836. Of the whole amount (\$46,110,761) \$17,736,114 was imported in the British steamers, including \$12,017,131 in specie. These British steamers commenced running the close of 1840. In that

year the value of imports by them was only \$72,600; in 1841, \$769,700; in 1842, \$730,800; in 1843, \$9,300,000, including \$6,650,000 in specie; in 1844, \$4,443,700; in 1845, \$4,026,300; in 1846, \$4,455,000; in 1847, seventeen millions and upwards, as stated above. Comparing these amounts with the total imports of the years mentioned, and then comparing the total imports of these years with those of the previous years, it will be seen that nearly the whole of the imports by the steamers is additional to what had before been imported. Much of it was and is on New York account; particularly in the matter of fine goods and specie. The imports into New York, last year, were twenty-five millions greater than during the previous year, but were exceeded by those of 1839, and still more by those of 1836; but not by those of any other year. They were nearly double those of 1832, and nearly quadruple those of 1822.

Tonnage of the United States.

In 1846	-	-	-	2,562,085
" 1847	-	-	-	2,830,046
" 1848	-	-	-	3,145,993
Tonnage engaged in whale-fishing	-	-	-	186,980
Steam tonnage engaged in whale-fishing	-	-	-	6,286
Tonnage in the cod-fishery	-	-	-	72,516
Tonnage in the mackerel-fishery	-	-	-	36,463
Steamboat tonnage	-	-	-	341,606
Vessels built during the year	-	-	-	1,317
Amount of tonnage of do.	-	-	-	152,111

Vessels Entered and Cleared in the United States.

	No.		Tons.		Crews.	
American vessels	-	16,562	-	4,372,142	-	213,806
Foreign vessels	-	11,477	-	1,927,917	-	108,888

In 1846, *Great Britain* had a commercial marine of 32,499 ships and vessels, with a tonnage (British) of 3,817,112, and the crews numbered 229,276.

France, in 1844, had 13,679 merchant vessels of all sorts, whose tonnage was 604,637.

In the year 1846, the tonnage of

Boston was	-	-	-	240,172 tons
New Bedford	-	-	-	117,157 "
New York	-	-	-	572,522 "
Philadelphia	-	-	-	127,902 "
Baltimore	-	-	-	40,901 "
Charleston	-	-	-	10,081 "
Savannah	-	-	-	8,853 "
Mobile	-	-	-	16,041 "
New Orleans	-	-	-	124,993 "

The per centage increase of tonnage yearly, in the ports of the United States, is 10;⁸/₁₀₀ths.

Commerce of Great Britain with the United States.

The following statement presents the value of the articles exported from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States, for the year ending 5th January, 1847.

Apparel, haberdashery, &c.	-	-	-	£175,143
Brass and copper manufactures	-	-	-	209,203
Cotton manufactures, including cotton yarn	-	-	-	1,133,657
Earthenware	-	-	-	323,155
Hardware and cutlery	-	-	-	739,793
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	-	-	-	737,191
Linen and linen yarn	-	-	-	852,778
Silk manufactures	-	-	-	225,364
Tin and pewter ware and tin plates	-	-	-	379,500
Woolen manufactures, including yarn	-	-	-	1,345,057
Other articles	-	-	-	709,611
				<hr/>
				£6,830,460

The imports into the United Kingdom from the United States, for the same period, in quantities, are stated as follows:

Bark	-	-	-	23,473 cwts.
Salted beef	-	-	-	161,668 "
Cheese	-	-	-	91,901 "
Skins	-	-	-	1,011,306 (number)
Corn, wheat	-	-	-	171,115 qrs.
Corn, wheat flour	-	-	-	2,229,580 cwts.
Hides	-	-	-	26,798 "
Iron	-	-	-	1,071 tons
Lard	-	-	-	85,666 cwts.
Spermaceti oil	-	-	-	2,207 tuns
Tallow	-	-	-	60,546 cwts.
Tar	-	-	-	1,556 lasts
Tobacco, not manufactured	-	-	-	48,612,355 lbs.
Tobacco manufactured, or cigars	-	-	-	1,409,059 "
Salted pork	-	-	-	45,453 cwts.
Rice not in husk	-	-	-	40,340 "
Do in husk	-	-	-	29,789 qrs.
Turpentine	-	-	-	355,766 cwts.
Wax	-	-	-	1,326 "
Clover seed	-	-	-	26,469 "
Linseed and flaxseed	-	-	-	7,536 qrs.
Wood and timber not sawn	-	-	-	20,452 loads
Do do sawn	-	-	-	15,275 "
Wool, cotton	-	-	-	401,953,804 lbs.
Wool, of sheep and lambs	-	-	-	901,024 "

The Times of the 29th January, 1848, states the imports as follows:

Quarter ending	Corn, Grain, and Meal, of all kinds imported.	Total estimated cost to the importer.
October 10th, 1846, -	1,390,953 qrs. -	£2,579,318
January 5th, 1847, -	1,361,195 -	2,560,158
April 5th, 1847, -	1,697,928 -	4,070,276
October 10th, 1847, -	4,921,130 -	14,240,720

"It is estimated officially, that during the year and four months, between June 28, 1846, and November 5, 1847, Great Britain had to import breadstuffs to the enormous amount of thirty-three millions and a half of pounds sterling—say one hundred and sixty-five millions of dollars!"

INTERNAL COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

It is impossible under this head, within the limits of our present number, to find room for all the statements within our reach.

The trade of the upper lakes is of itself a vast field. A portion of it passes through the Welland Canal to Canadian ports, a part by the way of Lake Ontario, but the largest portion to Buffalo, through the great Erie Canal.

In 1835, the whole exports from the west came principally from the northern or lake portion of Ohio. The amount which passed through Buffalo to tide-water, via the Erie Canal, of the principal articles, consisted of the following:—

Flour - - -	bbls.	86,233	Provisions - -	bbls.	6,562
Wheat - - -	bu.	98,071	Ashes - - -	casks	4,419
Staves - - -	lbs.	2,565,272	Wool - - -	lbs.	140,911
Corn - - -	bu.	14,579	Butter, cheese and lard "		1,030,632

In 1845 and 1846, Ohio and the other states around these lakes, sent to eastern markets, through the same channel, the following articles:

In 1845.

Flour - - -	bbls.	717,466	Provisions - -	bbls.	68,000
Wheat - - -	bu.	1,354,990	Ashes - - -	casks	34,602
Staves - - -	lbs.	88,296,431	Wool - - -	lbs.	2,957,761
Corn - - -	bu.	33,069	Butter, cheese and lard "		6,597,007

In 1846.

Flour - - -	bbls.	1,280,897	Provisions - -	bbls.	99,339
Wheat - - -	bu.	3,611,224	Ashes - - -	casks	22,465
Staves - - -	lbs.	65,958,932	Wool - - -	lbs.	3,762,829
Corn - - -	bu.	1,119,689	Butter, cheese and lard "		12,713,662

The entire amount of flour, wheat and other grain exported by the Western States, through the lakes in 1846, for Canada and our own markets, reduced to bushels, will exceed 15,000,000 of bushels.

James L. Barton, Esq., of Buffalo, to whom we are indebted for the foregoing tables, makes the following statement.

"The ascertained value of the business of Buffalo and Black Rock done on the Erie canal, and which came from and went on to the lakes, is a little short of

"To which add the immense quantities of building materials, coal, raw materials for our manufactures, provisions of all kinds for the supply of the city and local markets, nearly the whole of which come from the lakes, and the large business done on the rail roads and other sources to and from the lakes may, with great safety, be placed at - - - - - \$40,000,000

Making a total of - - - - - \$50,000,000
 as the amount of commerce of Buffalo alone; to which must be added the amount done through all the other ports on the lakes, and the large amount of intermediate commerce between the different ports, all of which I consider equal in amount to that done through Buffalo, the whole forming an aggregate of \$100,000,000 as the money value of the commerce of the upper lakes in 1846, against \$66,000,000 in 1845; and this without taking into account the large sums of money carried over the lakes either year.

Colonel Abert, in his topographical report, puts down the consolidated returns of exports and imports of the lake harbors for 1846 at \$123,829,821.

The commerce of Buffalo is stated at \$48,989,116.

The American tonnage of the lakes is estimated at 106,836 tons.

The British tonnage is estimated at 46,575 tons.

The number of passengers on the lakes in 1846, 250,000, and mariners, 7,000

He states the steamboat tonnage on the Western rivers for the same period, 249,055 tons. Flat-boats, 300,000 tons.

Exports and imports of New Orleans, \$53,366,993.

Value of the commerce of the Western rivers, \$163,611,725.

The tonnage of canal boats is estimated at 420,000 tons.

In 1847, the tonnage through on the Western Railroad, from Albany to Boston, was 274,591 tons, and the number of barrels of flour carried to Boston and intermediate places, was 702,500. The receipts for freight on this road for the year 1847, were \$785,346, and all the eastern rail roads more than \$5,000,000.

The whole western trade which came to tide-water in that year (1847) through the New York canals, is thus stated in the Albany Journal.

"We have procured from the canal department the following interesting statistics, compiled from tables prepared for the annual report of the commissioners of the canal fund, in relation to the canals of this state. It will be seen by reference to the statements, that the increase in the article of flour, compared with the year 1846, is 889,531 barrels; in wheat, 1,193,194 bushels: and by reducing the latter to flour, it shows an excess equal to 1,128,170 barrels of flour.

"In corn, the excess is 4,443,696 bushels; in barley, 95,067 bushels, and in rye the decrease is 26,680 bushels.

"In cheese, the excess is 5,283,882 pounds; in butter, 1,246,343 pounds, and in wool, 3,177,624 pounds.

"The aggregate quantity of property going from tide-water, is 288,267 tons, an increase over 1846, of 74,472 tons.

"The aggregate quantity of property arriving at tide water, is 1,744,283 tons, an increase over 1846 of 381,964 tons, which increase is distributed as follows: The forest 63,103 tons, agriculture 269,263 tons, manufactures 5,456 tons, merchandise 3,034 tons, and other articles 41,108 tons.

"The value of all the articles arriving at tide-water is \$73,092,414, an increase over 1846 of \$21,987,158."

STATEMENT showing the estimated value of each article which came to the Hudson river on all the canals during the years 1846 and 1847.

	1846.	1847.
THE FOREST.		
Fur and Peltry	- - - - \$1,021,385	\$690,150
<i>Product of Wood.</i>		
Board and scantling	- - - - 4,522,936	5,078,564
Shingles	- - - - 244,378	405,548
Timber	- - - - 251,096	169,160
Staves	- - - - 1,513,432	1,239,677
Wood	- - - - 59,160	79,986
Ashes	- - - - 1,076,904	1,135,288
AGRICULTURE.		
<i>Product of Animals.</i>		
Pork	- - - - 800,925	1,104,673
Beef	- - - - 364,800	718,344

	1846.	1847.
Agriculture.		
Bacon - - - - -	290,037	416,738
Cheese - - - - -	2,844,587	2,860,354
Butter - - - - -	3,220,633	3,408,751
Lard - - - - -	498,810	434,780
Wool - - - - -	2,571,415	3,599,963
Hides - - - - -	42,613	21,611
Vegetable Food.		
Flour - - - - -	15,470,271	27,057,037
Wheat - - - - -	3,366,141	5,833,901
Rye - - - - -	232,304	259,950
Corn - - - - -	1,126,854	5,170,970
Barley - - - - -	813,933	1,279,337
Other grain - - - - -	710,474	977,967
Bran and ship stuffs - - - - -	220,181	293,117
Peas and beans - - - - -	96,800	106,088
Potatoes - - - - -	114,686	51,755
Dried fruit - - - - -	135,261	320,364
All other Agricultural products.		
Cotton - - - - -	34,495	35,498
Tobacco - - - - -	313,092	150,735
Clover and grass seed - - - - -	76,608	231,518
Flaxseed - - - - -	131,943	103,219
Hops - - - - -	185,955	188,179
MANUFACTURES.		
Domestic spirits - - - - -	313,840	473,651
Leather - - - - -	928,918	965,204
Furniture - - - - -	223,611	197,251
Bar and pig lead - - - - -	19,592	19,288
Pig iron - - - - -	182,574	340,496
Bloom and bar iron - - - - -	265,222	660,896
Iron ware - - - - -	48,830	123,808
Domestic woollens - - - - -	1,923,390	2,369,187
Domestic cottons - - - - -	719,787	740,901
Salt - - - - -	180,035	133,836
Merchandise - - - - -	276,872	517,594
Other articles.		
Stone, lime and clay - - - - -	63,170	83,129
Gypsum - - - - -	26,933	17,584
Mineral coal - - - - -	47,116	81,453
Sundries - - - - -	3,633,257	2,944,914

STATEMENT showing the aggregate value of the property which came to the Hudson river on all the canals in 1846 and 1847:

	1846.	1847.
The Forest - - - - -	\$8,589,291	\$8,798,373
Agriculture - - - - -	33,662,818	54,624,849
Manufactures - - - - -	4,805,799	6,024,513
Merchandise - - - - -	276,872	517,594
Other articles - - - - -	3,770,476	3,127,080
Total	\$51,105,256	\$73,092,414

STATEMENT showing the total tons going from tide-water for the last fourteen years, and also the total tons arriving at tide-water, and the aggregate value thereof in market, during the same period.

Year.	Tons, from tide-water.	Tons, to tide-water.	Value.
1834	114,608	553,596	\$13,405,022
1835	128,910	753,191	20,525,446
1836	133,796	696,347	26,932,470
1837	122,130	611,781	21,822,354
1838	142,808	640,481	23,038,510
1839	142,034	602,128	20,163,199
1840	129,580	669,012	23,213,573
1841	162,715	774,334	27,225,322
1842	123,294	666,626	22,751,013
1843	143,595	836,861	28,453,408
1844	176,737	1,019,094	34,183,167
1845	195,000	1,204,043	45,452,321
1846	213,795	1,362,319	51,105,256
1847	288,267	1,744,283	73,092,414

ST. LAWRENCE CANALS.—The tolls on the Welland Canal have netted \$120,000 this year—a great increase. Many new vessels have been added to the lake trade, of 200 to 400 tons burthen. Now that the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals are in a fit state to pass vessels of 400 tons from Lakes Michigan, Huron, Erie, or Superior, to the ocean, the inland trade will be likely to increase greatly.

The tolls collected on the canals and railways belonging to Pennsylvania, for one year, ending in 1847, were \$1,587,995.

The coal and iron trade of that state is immense, and has been already specially noticed.

The following is the official statement of the quantity of coal sent to market in the years 1846 and '47.

	1847.	1846.	Income.
Reading Railroad	1,360,681	1,233,562	127,119
Schuylkill Canal	222,693	3,440	219,253
Pinegrove	67,457	68,926	8,531
Total	1,650,831	1,295,928	354,903
Lehigh	643,973	522,989	120,984
Lackawana	388,203	320,000	68,203
Wilkesbarre	284,398	192,503	91,895
Shamokin	14,904	12,572	2,332
Total	2,982,309	2,343,992	638,317
Of the quantity sent to market, Schuylkill County furnished			1,650,831 tons.
All other regions			1,331,295 "
Excess in favor of Schuylkill Co.			319,536 "
Increase for Schuylkill Co. in 1847			354,903 "
From all the other regions			283,211 "
Of the whole quantity sent to market since the commencement of the trade, Schuylkill County has furnished			10,213,120 "
All other regions			8,580,480 "
Total			18,793,603 "

The freight receipts of the Delaware and Raritan Canal, and Camden and Amboy Railroad Companies for the year 1847, were, \$1,405,705. Through the canal there passed 700,408 tons of merchandise, and 540,200 tons of coal. Over the railroad were carried 53,688 tons of merchandise.

Amount of tolls received on all the New York State canals, in each of the following years, viz.:

	Total to 1st Dec.
1840 - - - - -	\$1,773,582 51
1841 - - - - -	2,033,261 77
1842 - - - - -	1,748,869 88
1843 - - - - -	2,082,145 60
1844 - - - - -	2,446,037 94
1845 - - - - -	2,646,117 55
1846 - - - - -	2,754,467 25
1847 - - - - -	3,634,847 53

The above statement embraces, we presume, the aggregate of the canal business of the late prosperous season, or as near thereto as will enable us to state with something like accuracy the increased revenue which the canals have poured into our treasury. The increase over the season of 1846 may be stated in round numbers at \$880,000. To the gross amount Buffalo has contributed more than any other office on the line of the canal—the sum of \$1,216,700—about one-third of the whole.

The trade of the great Western rivers is commensurate with the capabilities of the vast and fertile country which they water. Steam power is producing wonderful results everywhere, but nowhere are its triumphs more complete than in the great valley of the West. Railroads are made and projected for the purpose of radiating over its surface in every direction, and the rivers are crowded with steamers. There arrived at the port of St. Louis, during 1847, 3,704 boats and barges, whose aggregate registered tonnage was 584,039. Fifteen were built at St. Louis during the same period, and nine more at other places on the river by the citizens of that place. There are now on the Western rivers about 1000 steamboats, and 5000 flatboats, carrying produce to New Orleans.

The commerce of St. Louis for the past year has been very large. From a table containing a statement of the receipts of the principal articles of merchandise, up to 1st Dec. 1847, we extract the following items:

Tobacco.—10,875 hhds.

Hemp.—83,392 bales, 30 tons loose.

Lead.—751,886 pigs.

Flour.—318,535 bbls., 747 half bbls.

Wheat.—39,538 bbls., 1,112,805 sacks.

Corn.—619 bbls., 481,247 sacks, 19,000 bushels in bulk.

Oats.—24 bbls., 108,967 sacks, 2,000 bushels in bulk.

Rye.—106 bbls., 2,914 sacks.

Pork.—245 casks and tierces, 43,316 bbls., 186 half barrels.

Beef.—5,258 tierces, 5,756 bbls., 120 half barrels.

Bacon.—10,969 casks, 2,213 bbls. and boxes, 129,156 pieces, and 587 tons, in bulk.

Lard.—1,982 tierces, 27,829 bbls., 467 half barrels, 10,577 kegs.

Whisky.—8 hhds., 26,821 bbls., 102 half barrels.

Sugar.—10,706 hhds. and tierces, 13,978 bbls. and boxes, 1,241 bags.

Coffee.—75,114 bags.

Molasses.—1,580 hhds. and tierces, 12,509 bbls., 350 half barrels.

Cincinnati has increased with astonishing rapidity in population and business, within the past ten years, and has a position which commands the products of a vast region of unbounded fertility. It is becoming celebrated for

fruits and wine. The production of strawberries is immense—over 100 bushels are sold daily in the markets. But it is especially famous for its trade in pork, bacon and lard. The number of hogs packed in Cincinnati, during the past season, is 475,000.

We present a table, from the Cincinnati Gazette, of the operations in the three leading articles of provisions during the last two years—

		<i>Into Cincinnati.</i>		1846-7.	1847-8.
Pork and Bacon—					
	Hogsheads,	-	-	2,051	421
	Tierces,	-	-	3	36
	Barrels,	-	-	10,538	22,621
	Pounds,	-	-	581,522	966,587
Lard—	Barrels,	-	-	16,524	15,660
	Kegs,	-	-	8,939	23,820
		<i>From Cincinnati.</i>		1846-7.	1847-8.
Pork and Bacon—					
	Hogsheads,	-	-	8,388	14,719
	Tierces,	-	-	2,758	5,017
	Barrels,	-	-	87,337	87,042
	Pounds,	-	-	868,355	1,460,049
Lard—	Barrels,	-	-	30,047	41,923
	Kegs,	-	-	78,516	124,939

The St. Louis Republican furnishes the following statement of the number of hogs packed in the West during the season of 1847-8. The numbers are only given as an aggregate.

		<i>Ohio River.</i>			
Wheeling	-	-	5,000	Tennessee and Cumber-	
Cincinnati,	-	-	475,000	land rivers,	-
Madison,	-	-	75,000	Scioto Valley,	-
Louisville,	-	-	100,000	Aurora,	-
Maysville,	-	-	10,000	Covington,	-
Wabash and White rivers,	-	-	200,000		-
				Total number	-
					1,081,000
		<i>Mississippi River.</i>			
St. Louis,	-	-	69,924	Quincy,	-
Alton,	-	-	35,000	Keokuk,	-
Hannibal,	-	-	20,000	Oquawka,	-
Rockport,	-	-	3,000	Bloomington,	-
Lagrange and Tulley,	-	-	5,000	Fort Madison,	-
Churchville,	-	-	5,000	Burlington,	-
Louisiana,	-	-	5,000		-
Warsaw,	-	-	10,000	Total number	-
					216,924
		<i>Illinois River.</i>			
Peru,	-	-	3,000	Lagrange,	-
Lacon,	-	-	5,000	Canton,	-
Peoria,	-	-	25,000	Knoxville,	-
Pekin,	-	-	25,000	Springfield,	-
Point Isabel,	-	-	5,000	Griggsville,	-
Beardstown,	-	-	25,000	Tremont,	-
Meredosia,	-	-	10,000		-
Naples,	-	-	6,000	Total number	-
					156,500

Missouri River.

St. Joseph, - - -	5,000	Boonville, - - -	4,000
Western, - - -	10,000	Rocheport, - - -	3,000
Lexington, - - -	2,000	Liberty, - - -	2,000
Camden, - - -	5,000		
Brunswick, - - -	5,000	Total number -	39,000
Glasgow, - - -	3,000		
Total amount of above tables - - - - -			1,492,921

There are several small towns not embraced in the tables, which will probably swell the total to 1,500,000.

New Orleans is the great outlet for the trade of the western rivers.

Although the receipts of sugar, molasses, hemp, and cotton for the year 1847, do not equal those of 1846, still the value of the products received at New Orleans from the interior, during the past year, exceeds anything of the kind in any previous year, by many millions of dollars.

In 1846 the receipts of sugar	were	186,650 hogsheads.
“ “ molasses	“	9,000,000 galls.
“ “ hemp	“	14,873 bales.
“ “ lead	“	785,324 pigs.
“ “ cotton	“	1,041,393 bales.

The annexed table exhibits the receipts at New Orleans for the year ending September 1st, 1847.

Commerce of New Orleans—Value of Receipts from the Interior.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value in Dollars.
Apples, bbls.,	39,612	\$3 00	118,836
Bacon, assorted, hhds. and casks,	28,607	60 00	1,716,420
Bacon, assorted, boxes,	8,325	30 00	249,750
Bacon hams, hhds. and tierces,	14,518	65 00	913,670
Bacon, in bulk pounds,	425,163	6	25,509
Bagging, pieces,	60,982	10 50	640,311
Bale rope, coils,	56,201	6 00	337,206
Beans, bbls.	24,536	4 00	98,144
Butter, kegs and firkins,	51,384	5 00	256,920
Butter, bbls.,	852	20 00	17,440
Beeswax, bbls.,	1,109	40 00	44,360
Beef, bbls.,	32,738	10 00	327,380
Beef, tierces,	21,230	16 00	339,680
Beef, dried, pounds,	49,000	7	3,430
Buffalo robes, packs,	55	60 00	3,300
Cotton, bales,	740,669	44 00	32,589,436
Corn meal, bbls.,	88,159	3 50	308,505
Corn, in ear, bbls.	69,576	1 10	681,533
Corn, shelled, sacks,	2,386,510	2 00	4,773,020
Cheese, boxes,	57,429	3 50	201,001
Candles, boxes,	8,496	3 50	29,736
Cider, bbls.,	477	3 00	1,431
Coal, western, bbls.,	356,500	75	267,375
Dried apples and peaches, bbls.,	8,770	2 50	21,925
Feathers, bags,	3,498	25 00	87,450
Flaxseed, tierces,	962	9 00	8,658
Flour, barrels,	1,617,675	5 50	8,897,213
Furs, hhds., bundles and boxes,	318	—	600,000
Hemp, bundles,	60,238	15 00	903,570
Hides,	98,342	1 25	122,927
Hay, bundles,	95,231	3 00	285,693

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value in Dollars.
Iron, pig, tons,	1,151	30 00	34,530
Lard, hhds.,	143	80 00	11,440
Lard, barrels and tierces,	117,077	23 00	2,692,771
Lard, kegs,	275,076	4 00	1,100,304
Leather, bundles,	3,716	20 00	74,320
Lime, western, barrels,	5,994	1 00	5,994
Lead, pigs,	650,129	2 75	1,787,854
Lead, bar, kegs and boxes,	1,291	15 00	19,365
Molasses, (estimated crop) galls.	6,000,000	24	1,440,000
Oats, bbls. and sacks,	588,337	90	529,503
Onions, bbls.,	7,185	2 00	14,370
Oil, linseed, bbls.,	3,637	20 00	72,740
Oil, castor, bbls.,	1,439	20 00	28,780
Oil, lard, bbls.,	2,573	22 00	56,936
Peach brandy, bbls.,	72	16 00	1,152
Potatoes, bbls.,	142,888	2 00	285,776
Pork, bbls.,	302,170	12 00	3,626,040
Pork, hhds.,	9,452	40 00	378,080
Pork in bulk, pounds,	8,450,700	6	507,042
Porter and Ale, bbls.,	1,363	7 50	10,222
Packing yarn, reels,	2,193	5 00	10,965
Skins, deer,	1,784	20 00	35,680
Skins, bear, packs,	71	15 00	1,065
Shot, kegs,	3,992	18 00	71,856
Soap, boxes,	4,361	2 60	11,338
Staves, M.,	2,000	25 00	50,000
Sugar, (estimated crop) hhds.,	140,000	70 00	9,800,000
Spanish moss, bales,	5,990	4 00	23,960
Tallow, bbls.,	6,658	20 00	133,160
Tobacco, leaf, hhds.,	44,588	55 00	2,452,340
Tobacco, strips, hhds.,	11,000	100 00	1,100,000
Tobacco, chew'g, kegs and boxes,	3,930	12 50	49,125
Tobacco, bales,	1,001	3 00	3,003
Twine, bundles and boxes,	1,334	7 00	9,338
Vinegar, bbls.,	1,059	4 00	4,236
Whisky, bbls.,	126,553	10 00	1,265,530
Window glass, boxes,	3,805	4 00	15,220
Wheat, barrels and sacks,	833,649	2 30	1,917,392
Other various articles—estimated at			5,500,000
Total value—Dollars			90,033,256
Total in 1845-6,			77,193,464
Total in 1844-5,			57,199,122
Total in 1843-4,			60,094,716

THE UNION.

The growth of different sections of the United States is thus stated:

Increase of the Eastern States (in 10 years) $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Do. Middle " " 33 "

Do. Western " " 74 "

Do. N. Western " " 108 "

In the Northwest and West, then, lie the great growth of the United States, as compared with European nations, and in the Valley of the Mississippi, the largest share of it.

ICE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The principal locality for cutting ice to be exported to foreign countries, is the Wenham Lake, near Boston. Boston and its suburbs, or town of Charlestown, near the lake, are the principal places of export.

There are in Boston about twenty companies engaged in transporting ice to the East and West Indies, New Orleans, South America and Europe, and to other warm climates. In 1830, the quantity of ice shipped from Charlestown to distant ports, amounted to 30,000 tons. No less than 50,000 tons were exported from Boston. The expense to the shippers was 12,340 dollars, or about a quarter of a dollar a ton. The average receipts were 3,570,000 dollars; a single firm in Boston freighted 101 vessels, and a cargo was sent to the East Indies, and exchanged pound for pound for cotton, which was sold at a profit in England. Saw-dust, for packing, is worth three dollars per cord. Formerly, ice sold in New Orleans for six cents per pound, and now sells for one cent per pound; but more money is made from the increased consumption at one cent than was made at six cents. The ice is sawed into blocks by a machine, and is packed on board the vessels with straw and hay, in thin deal boxes, air-tight. One company expended 7,000 dollars for hay alone. The annual crop of Wenham Lake ice is considered good at 200,000 tons, and can be cut and housed in about three weeks.

In September, 1833, the first cargo of ice from Boston, was discharged at Calcutta.

Since 1833, the trade has greatly increased; and, from the small beginning at Boston, has extended from other northern ports; and a considerable quantity is now annually shipped at New York.

From an interesting account of the ice cutting, published two or three years since, we make the following extract:—

“The Wenham Lake is in an elevated position, and embosomed within hills. The lake has no inlet whatever; but is fed solely by springs which issue from the rocks at its bottom, a depth of 200 feet from its surface. This depth explains the great solidity of the ice formed upon the lake.

“The ice-houses are built of wood, with double walls; the space between which is filled with sawdust; thus interposing a medium that is nearly a non-conductor of heat between the ice and external air: the consequence of which is, that the ice is not affected by the temperature of the external atmosphere.

“The machinery employed for cutting the ice was invented for that purpose. It is worked by men and horses.

“From the time when the ice first forms, it is carefully kept free from snow, until it is thick enough to be cut; that process commences when the ice is a foot thick. A surface of some two acres is selected, which at that thickness will furnish about 2,000 tons; and a straight line is then drawn through its centre, from side to side, each way. A small hand-plough is pushed along one of these lines, until the groove is about three inches deep and a quarter of an inch in width, when the ‘marker’ is introduced. This implement is drawn by two horses, and makes two new grooves parallel with the first, twenty-one inches apart, the gauge remaining in the original groove. The marker is then shifted to the outside groove, and makes two more—having drawn these lines over the whole surface in one direction, marking all the ice out into squares of twenty-one inches. In the meantime, the ‘plough,’ drawn by a single horse, is following in these grooves, cutting the ice to the depth of six inches.

“One entire range of blocks is then sawn out, and the remainder are split off toward the opening thus made, with an iron bar. This bar is shaped like a spade, and of a wedge-like form.

“When it is dropped into the groove, the block splits off; a very slight blow

being sufficient to produce that effect, especially in cold weather. The labor of 'splitting is very light or otherwise, according to the temperature of the atmosphere. 'Platforms' or low tables of framework, are placed near the opening made in the ice, with iron slides extending into the water, and a man stands on each side of this slide, armed with an ice hook. With this hook the ice is caught, and by a sudden jerk, thrown up the 'slide' on to the 'platform.' In a cold day everything is speedily covered with ice by the freezing of the water on the platforms, slides, &c., and the enormous blocks of ice, weighing, some of them, more than two cwt., are hauled along these slippery surfaces as if they were without weight.

"Forty men and twelve horses will cut and stow away 400 tons a day; in favorable weather, 100 men are sometimes employed at once. When a thaw or a fall of rain occurs, it entirely unfits the ice for market, by rendering it opaque and porous, and occasionally snow is immediately followed by rain, and that again by frosts, forming snow ice, which is valueless, and must be removed by the 'plane.' The operation of planing is similar to that of cutting.

"In addition to filling their ice-houses at the lake and in the large towns, the company fill a large number of private ice-houses during the winter—all the ice for these purposes being transported by railway. It will be easily believed, that the expense of providing tools, building houses, furnishing labor, and constructing and keeping up the railway, is very great; but the traffic is so extensive, and the management of trade so good, that the ice can be furnished, even in England, at a very trifling cost.

"Extensive ice-houses, in London and at Liverpool, have been constructed of stone, &c. Though transported in the heat of summer, it is not much reduced in bulk. The masses of ice are so large, that a small surface only is presented to atmospheric action in proportion to their weight, and therefore do not suffer from their exposure to it, as the smaller and thinner fragments do, which are obtained in our own or other warmer climates. It appears, also, that ice frozen upon very deep water, is more hard and solid than ice of the same thickness obtained from shallow water."

TOBACCO.

The growth and enormous consumption of a plant prepared not as a product of use and nourishment, but as a stimulant, and which was not known in Europe three centuries ago, is remarkable.

"In the city of New York alone, the consumption of cigars is computed at 10,000 dollars a day—a sum greater than that which the inhabitants pay for their daily bread; and in the whole country, the annual consumption of tobacco is estimated at 100,000,000 lbs., being seven pounds to every man, woman, and child, at an annual cost to the consumer of 20,000,000 dollars.

"In 1840, it was ascertained by a committee appointed to procure and report statistical information on the subject, that about 1,500,000 persons were engaged in the manufacture and cultivation of tobacco in the United States; 1,000,000 of whom were in the states of Virginia, Maryland, Kentucky and Missouri. Allowing the population of the whole country to be 17,000,000, it will be seen that nearly *one-tenth* are in some way engaged in the cultivation or manufacture of this article. The value of the export during that year was nearly 10,000,000 dollars."—(*McGregor*.)

Notwithstanding the variety of the soil in the United States tobacco is produced in most of the states. In Massachusetts, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Missis-

ssippi, Louisiana, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Florida. By the returns of 1845, Kentucky produced 63,310,000 lbs.; Tennessee 37,100,000; Virginia 30,210,000; Maryland 17,920,000; Missouri 13,744,000; North Carolina 10,373,000; Ohio 7,576,000, &c. And the whole crop for 1845 was put down at 187,422,000 lbs. In 1840 the crop was estimated at 219,163,319 lbs., or 182,636 hogsheads (1200 lbs. each).

The tobacco crop of 1847 is estimated at 220,164,000 lbs., worth at 5 cents a pound, \$11,000,000.

Thus tobacco, a mere luxury, has become one of the largest and most important productions of the soil. It finds its way to almost every part of the world, and is enjoyed by people of all countries. Humboldt derives its name from the Haitine language, signifying the pipe used by the natives. Some curious facts are connected with its history.

In 1620, ninety young women were sent over from England to America, and sold to the planters for tobacco at 120 lbs. each.

In 1690, the pope excommunicated all who took snuff or tobacco in church.

In 1719, the culture of tobacco was prohibited in Strasburgh, as tending to diminish the growing of corn.

In 1732, tobacco was made a legal tender in Maryland, at one penny a pound.

PATENTS.

The patent office of the United States has become one of the most interesting and useful departments of the government. From the transactions of the year 1847, the following tables have been extracted and published.

Finances of the Patent Office.

Balance from 1846, in the treasury, to the credit of the Patent Office, on Jan. 1, 1847	-	-	-	-	\$186,565 14
Amount of receipts from all sources during the year ending Dec. 31st, 1847	-	-	-	-	63,111 19
					<u>\$249,676 33</u>

Payments made from Jan. 1st, 1847, to Dec. 31st, 1847, as follows :

For salaries	-	-	-	-	\$16,350 00
Contingent expenses	-	-	-	-	8,657 77
Books for library	-	-	-	-	1,049 58
Temporary clerks	-	-	-	-	6,937 57
Agricultural statistics	-	-	-	-	465 00
Withdrawals	-	-	-	-	7,873 33
Restoring records and drawings	-	-	-	-	310 00
Money paid in treasury by mistake	-	-	-	-	135 00
Salary of district judge for signing patents, &c.	-	-	-	-	100 00
					<u>41,878 25</u>
Leaving in the treasury, to the credit of the Patent office, on Jan. 1st, 1848	-	-	-	-	\$207,798 08
The receipts for the year 1847, as above, are	-	-	-	-	\$63,111 19
Expenses for the same period	-	-	-	-	41,878 25
					<u>\$21,232 94</u>
Amount of revenue, over and above all expenses	-	-	-	-	\$21,232 94

During the year 1847 there were 1,531 applications for patents. During the same period there were 533 caveats filed, and 576 cases were rejected.

The patents granted were -	-	-	-	-	-	495
Renewed patent -	-	-	-	-	-	1
Extended do. -	-	-	-	-	-	3
Disclaimers entered -	-	-	-	-	-	3
Re-issued -	-	-	-	-	-	13
Improvements to original patents	-	-	-	-	-	3
Designs patented -	-	-	-	-	-	60
Making a total of patents issued						578

The cost of a patent in the *United States* is, to a citizen, \$30; to a British subject \$500; to all others \$300—a caveat costs \$20.

In *Great Britain*, patents must be obtained separately for England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The average ordinary cost is, for—

England and Wales -	-	-	-	-	-	£110
Scotland -	-	-	-	-	-	80
Ireland -	-	-	-	-	-	130
						320
Deposit required -	-	-	-	-	-	30
						350
Cost for the three kingdoms -	-	-	-	-	-	350

A specification costs £15, and £1 for every 1,080 words after the first 1,080. A patent, taken out in England, may include all the colonies and plantations abroad, at an extra expense of £7. The time of obtaining a patent is from four to six weeks. Patents are granted for fourteen years.

France.—Patents are granted for five, ten, or fifteen years. The tax prescribed is five hundred francs for fifteen years, to be paid by annuities of one hundred francs each, under penalty of forfeiture for a year's default. Foreigners may obtain patents; but the duration of a patent, already patented abroad, cannot exceed that of the foreign patent. The writings and description of the patent must be in French.

Austria.—Inventions from abroad are confined to those already patented abroad, and to the term of the foreign patent, and cannot exceed fifteen years, except by special grant. The cost or fees are ten guilders (forty-five cents each) each year for the first five years, and increasing five guilders each year afterward, so that the fifteenth year is sixty guilders, or for the whole fifteen years four hundred and twenty-five guilders; the fee to be paid every year in advance.

Prussia.—Patents granted for from six months to fifteen years. Expense about one hundred and fifty dollars. The patentee must put his patent into use within six months.

Russia.—A foreign invention cannot be patented for more than six years. The fee to be paid is sixty silver rubles (seventy-five cents each) for each year, making three hundred and sixty for the whole time.

Belgium.—Patents are granted for five and ten years, and may be extended. Fee, for five years, one hundred and fifty florins (a florin is about forty cents); ten years, three or four hundred florins; fifteen years, six hundred or seven hundred and fifty florins. In introducing a foreign patent the articles fabricated must be made within the realm. The patent must be put into use within the time fixed by law.

The patent laws of *Holland* are the same as in Belgium.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

After the census of 1840 was taken, the commissioner of patents commenced a series of tables and calculations, for the purpose of determining the amount of the agricultural productions of each state of the Union. These tables are probably, in the main, correct, though, in some particulars, their accuracy may be questioned.

Estimate of the crops of the United States in 1845, in bushels.

State.	Wheat.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.
Maine .	502,000	1,912,000	8,613,000	185,000	273,000	1,564,000
N. H. .	647,000	1,828,000	3,714,000	425,000	123,000	1,942,000
Mass. .	241,000	3,098,000	3,028,000	594,000	162,000	1,856,000
R. I. .	5,000	731,000	650,000	47,000	51,000	200,000
Conn. .	114,000	2,649,000	1,694,000	1,010,000	26,000	1,646,000
Vt. .	854,000	1,728,000	4,926,000	321,000	51,000	3,593,000
N. Y. .	16,200,000	13,250,000	21,986,000	3,560,000	3,574,000	23,700,000
N. J. .	1,050,000	7,314,000	1,757,000	2,954,000	8,500	4,912,000
Penn. .	12,580,000	17,126,000	5,497,000	11,929,000	141,000	19,826,000
Del. .	440,000	2,713,000	155,000	53,000	4,500	828,000
Md. .	4,884,000	3,723,000	705,000	944,000	2,700	1,691,000
Va. .	11,885,000	27,272,000	1,899,000	1,441,000	84,600	8,888,000
N. C. .	1,969,000	14,887,000	2,711,000	217,000	3,600	2,673,000
S. C. .	1,168,000	8,184,000	2,520,000	48,000	3,600	700,000
Ga. .	1,571,000	13,320,000	1,536,000	64,000	11,800	833,000
Ala. .	980,000	16,650,000	1,635,000	76,000	7,200	1,527,000
Miss. .	378,000	2,167,000	3,040,000	21,000	1,800	1,189,000
La.	8,360,000	1,299,000	2,000
Tenn. .	8,340,000	70,265,000	2,256,000	384,000	5,500	8,625,000
Ky. .	4,769,000	54,625,000	1,508,000	2,548,000	15,400	13,091,000
Ohio .	13,572,000	57,600,000	4,120,000	798,000	219,600	24,447,000
Ind. .	7,044,000	30,625,000	2,680,000	221,000	35,200	13,902,000
Illinois .	4,563,000	25,584,000	2,631,000	143,000	101,200	12,597,000
Mo. .	1,525,000	15,625,000	875,000	81,000	11,000	5,466,000
Ark. .	2,427,000	8,250,000	642,000	12,000	900	436,000
Mich. .	7,061,000	4,945,000	4,555,000	77,000	197,200	4,815,000
Florida	733,000	255,000	8,000
Wisc. .	971,000	672,000	938,000	5,000	20,000	1,200,000
Iowa .	793,000	2,028,000	516,000	8,000	25,000	681,000
D. C. .	15,000	35,000	41,000	7,000	. . .	12,000
	106,548,000	417,899,000	88,392,000	27,175,000	5,160,600	163,208,000

Estimate of Crops in 1845.—Concluded.

State.	Buckw't bushels.	Hay in tons.	Tobacco, pounds.	Cotton, pounds.	Rice, pounds.	Silk, co- coons.	Sugar, pounds.
Me.	69,000	1,877,000	944	300,000
N. H.	154,000	526,000	1,210	2,200,000
Mass.	126,000	530,000	123,000	47,110	500,000
R. I.	4,000	46,000	1,250	. .
Conn.	444,000	458,000	794,000	220,000	50,000
Vt.	300,000	1,139,000	13,740	10,000,000
N. Y.	3,347,000	3,703,000	7,850	14,500,000
N. J.	900,000	282,000	6,240	. .
Pa.	3,322,000	1,527,000	535,000	41,370	1,600,000
Del.	13,000	19,000	5,500	. .
Md.	109,000	56,000	17,920,000	6,000	. .	10,240	. .
Va.	. .	296,000	30,218,000	2,412,000	2,500	9,260	1,700,000
N. C.	. .	67,000	10,373,000	40,000,000	3,000,000	8,850	9,000
S. C.	. .	16,000	40,000	45,000,000	66,500,000	7,620	30,000
Ga.	. .	13,000	195,000	205,000,000	14,500,000	8,430	350,000
Ala.	. .	15,000	341,000	145,000,000	280,000	7,890	12,000
Miss.	. .	1,000	193,000	235,000,000	975,000	300	. .
La.	. .	26,000	. .	185,000,000	3,800,000	1,570	175,000,000
Tenn.	26,000	42,000	37,109,000	48,000,000	9,000	30,110	520,000
Ky.	14,000	123,000	63,310,000	1,200,000	17,000	6,970	2,100,000
Ohio	950,000	1,251,000	7,576,000	39,370	3,900,000
Ind.	73,000	1,351,000	3,520,000	1,150	8,000,000
Ill.	99,000	297,000	1,168,000	270,000	. .	4,680	600,000
Mo.	19,000	77,000	13,744,000	200,000	. .	290	450,000
Ark.	. .	1,000	. .	17,000,000	6,500	300	5,000
Mich.	260,000	214,000	1,900	3,000,000
Fla.	. .	1,000	260,000	12,000,000	675,000	590	750,000
Wis.	25,000	84,000	40	300,000
Iowa.	14,000	26,000	150,000
D. C.	. .	1,000	1,500	. .
Total	10,268,000	14,065,000	187,422,000	936,088,000	89,765,000	486,530	226,026,000

Aggregate Summary of the Estimates of the principal Crops—1840 to 1845—from the Patent Office Reports.

Product.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat, bushels -	91,642,957	102,317,340	100,310,856	95,607,000
Corn, do. -	387,380,185	441,829,246	494,618,306	421,953,000
Potatoes, do. -	113,183,619	135,883,381	105,756,133	99,493,000
Barley, do. -	5,024,731	3,871,622	3,220,721	3,627,000
Oats, do. -	130,607,625	150,883,617	145,929,966	172,247,000
Rye, do. -	19,333,474	22,762,952	24,280,271	26,450,000
Buckwh't, do. -	7,953,544	9,483,409	7,959,410	9,071,000
Hay, tons -	12,804,705	14,053,355	15,419,807	17,715,000
Tobacco, lbs. -	240,187,118	194,694,891	185,731,554	151,705,000
Cotton, do. -	578,008,473	683,333,231	747,660,090	872,107,000
Rice, do. -	88,952,968	94,007,484	89,879,145	111,759,000
Silk, do. -	379,272	244,124	315,965	396,790
Sugar, do. -	126,164,644	142,445,199	106,400,310	201,107,000

We have been promised the report of the commissioner of patents for the year 1847 as soon as published. It has not come to hand in time for the present Statistical Register. We have, however, obtained from other sources, tables which purport to have been prepared by Mr. Burke, and are given on his authority. Although portions of them belong strictly to other subjects, we print them all under this head, as they present the amount of products, labor, landed and personal property, in the whole Union, with the population by whom the labor has been done and the property is owned.

Tables, exhibiting an estimate of the value of the products of labor and capital in the United States, for the year 1847.

Articles.	Quantities in bushels.	Price.	Value.
1. Agricultural.			
Wheat - - -	114,245,500	\$1 20	\$137,094,600
Indian Corn - - -	539,350,000	40	215,740,000
Barley - - -	5,649,950	80	4,519,960
Rye - - -	29,222,500	65	18,994,625
Oats - - -	167,867,000	25	41,966,750
Buckwheat - - -	11,673,500	50	5,836,750
Potatoes - - -	100,950,000	20	20,190,000
Beans - - -	25,000,000	1 00	25,000,000
Peas - - -	25,000,000	1 20	30,000,000
	Tons.		
Hay - - -	13,319,900	8 00	106,559,200
Hemp and Flax - -	116,207	150 00	17,431,050
	Pounds.		
Tobacco - - -	220,164,000	05	11,008,200
Cotton - - -	1,041,500,000	07	72,905,000
Rice - - -	103,040,500	03	3,091,215
Sugar - - -	324,940,500	06	19,496,430
Silk cocoons - - -	404,000	2 00	808,000
Hops - - -	1,510,977	10	151,097
Beeswax - - -	766,530	22	168,636
	Gallons.		
Molasses - - -	13,000,000	25	3,250,000
Wine - - -	152,075	1 00	152,175
Value of straw, chaff, and residuum of the crops - - -			74,000,000
Value of the pasturage after crops are taken off - - -			7,500,000
			<hr/> \$815,863,688

2. Products of the Orchards.—Value in 1840, \$7,256,904; estimated increase of 22 per cent., \$1,596,518; total, \$8,853,422.

3. Products of the Gardens.—Number estimated 3,000,000; annual value estimated at \$15 per garden; total, \$45,000,000.

4. Products of the Nurseries.—Value in 1840, \$593,534; increase of 22 per cent., \$130,577; total, \$724,111.

Total products of orchards and gardens, \$54,577,503.

5. Live stock and its products:

Sheep.—Number in 1847, 25,000,000; estimated value of lambs and mutton sold, \$12,500,000; wool, 60,000,000 pounds, at 30 cents per pound—\$18,000,000.

Neat Cattle.—Number in 1847, 18,265,334; increase and value of cattle sold for beef, \$40,000,000.

Swine.—Number in 1847, 35,000,000; two-thirds slaughtered annually, say 23,000,000, valued at \$5 each animal, \$115,000,000.

Horses, Mules and Asses.—Number in 1847, 5,289,516; value of increase, (labor not estimated,) \$7,934,250.

Poultry.—Value in 1840, \$9,344,410; increase 22 per cent., \$2,055,770; total, \$11,499,180.

Produce of the Dairy.—Value in 1840, \$33,787,008; increase 22 per cent., \$7,433,141; total, \$41,220,149.

Total amount of live stock and its products, \$246,054,579.

Products of the Forest—Including timber, furs, skins, game, &c., \$21,599,628; fire wood, 25,000,000 cords, at \$1.50 per cord, \$37,500,000; total, \$59,099,628.

Products of the Fisheries—Including whale, cod, mackarel, and all other fisheries, \$17,069,262.

Capital—Employed in commerce, trade and internal transportation, \$390,972,423; profits at 6 per cent., \$23,458,345.

Manufacture—Value of, \$550,000,000.

Mines—Products of, including iron, lead, gold, silver, marble, granite, coal, &c., \$74,170,500.

Banking and Insurance—Bank capital, \$208,216,000; capital of insurance companies not known; profits of, \$25,000,000.

Money Loaned at Interest—Profits of, \$25,000,000.

Rentals—Of houses and lands, \$50,000,000.

Professions—Profits of, \$50,000,000.

Grand total of the value of the products of labor and capital in the United States, \$1,985,293,535.

Table, exhibiting the population and property (real and personal) of each State and Territory in the United States, in 1847.*

States and Territories.	Population, including free and slaves.	Total amount of property, real and personal, of each state of the Union—\$400 per head.
Maine - - - - -	600,000	\$240,000,000
New Hampshire - - - - -	300,000	120,000,000
Massachusetts - - - - -	850,000	340,000,000
Rhode Island - - - - -	130,000	52,000,000
Connecticut - - - - -	330,000	132,000,000
Vermont - - - - -	302,000	120,000,000
New York - - - - -	2,780,000	1,112,000,000
New Jersey - - - - -	416,000	166,400,000
Pennsylvania - - - - -	2,125,000	850,000,000
Delaware - - - - -	80,000	32,000,000
Maryland - - - - -	495,000	198,000,000
Virginia - - - - -	1,270,000	508,000,000
North Carolina - - - - -	765,000	306,000,000
South Carolina - - - - -	605,000	242,000,000
Georgia - - - - -	800,000	320,000,000
Alabama - - - - -	690,000	276,000,000
Mississippi - - - - -	640,000	256,000,000
Louisiana - - - - -	470,000	188,000,000
Tennessee - - - - -	950,000	380,000,000

* See page 109 for statistics of population, and where this table appropriately belongs.

States and Territories.	Population, &c.	Total Amount, &c.
Kentucky - - - - -	855,000	342,000,000
Ohio - - - - -	1,850,000	740,000,000
Indiana - - - - -	960,000	384,000,000
Illinois - - - - -	735,000	294,000,000
Missouri - - - - -	600,000	240,000,000
Arkansas - - - - -	152,000	60,960,000
Michigan - - - - -	370,000	148,000,000
Florida - - - - -	75,000	30,000,000
Wisconsin - - - - -	215,000	36,000,000
Iowa - - - - -	130,000	52,000,000
Texas - - - - -	140,000	56,000,000
District of Columbia - - - - -	46,000	18,000,000
Oregon - - - - -	20,000	8,000,000
Total - - - - -	20,746,000	\$8,294,360,000

In France the annual production of every kind of grain, at several periods, is given as follows:—

Period.	Quantity.	For every inhabitant.
1760 - - - - -	92,836,000 hectolitres*	472 litres*
1760 - - - - -	94,500,000 "	450 "
1788 - - - - -	115,816,000 "	484 "
1813 - - - - -	132,435,000 "	441 "
1840 - - - - -	182,546,000 "	541 "

The total value of the annual product of grain of different kinds raised in France is 2,055,469,836 francs. (The franc is equal to 18·6 cts., or 5 francs equal ·93 cents.)

The foreign wheat imported into France in 1846 was 4,845,552 hectolitres, valued at 115,568,981 francs. In nine months of 1847, it was 8,031,023 hectolitres valued at 289,116,000 francs.

In the statistical tables of France for 1848, we find the following estimate of the quantity and value of the *wheat* produced in Europe:—

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
England - - - - -	27,000,000 hectolitres.	675,000,000 francs.
Scotland - - - - -	1,540,000 "	38,500,000 "
Ireland - - - - -	40,600,000 "	265,000,000 "
Sweden - - - - -	239,000 "	5,500,000 "
Prussia - - - - -	7,400,000 "	111,000,000 "
France - - - - -	70,000,000 "	1,400,000,000 "
Austria - - - - -	2,943,000 "	377,000,000 "
Holland and Belgium - - - - -	3,426,000 "	51,405,000 "
Spain - - - - -	17,860,000 "	360,360,000 "

The increase or multiplication of the seed of grain has been a subject of inquiry. The following results have been gathered principally from official documents—

In *Sweden* and *Norway*, the increase of seed is stated at $4\frac{1}{2}$ for 1.

In Denmark	6	Prussia	6	Belgium	11
Russia	5	Austria	$7\frac{1}{2}$	Bavaria	8
Poland	8	Hungary	4	Portugal	10
England	9	Scotland	8	Ireland	10
Spain	8	France	$7\frac{1}{2}$	Italy	10
Tuscany	10	Lucca	15	Malta	22

In the United States the average increase of wheat is 8—Indian corn 10.

* A hectolitre is 22 gallons or $2\frac{2}{3}$ bushels, and a litre $1\frac{1}{4}$ pints.

If, on this subject, we consult the writers of antiquity, we have, on the authority of the most distinguished of them, results so immense, as to exceed very far the increase of the present day.

Countries.	Multiplication or increase of corn.	Authority.
Ancient Egypt -	- 100 for one -	- Pliny, 18, 10.
Palestine (time of Isaac) -	- 100 " -	- Genesis, 26, 12.
Syria -	- 100 " -	- Varron—1.
Libya -	- 300 " -	- Herod., 4, 189.
Lucania -	- 100 " -	- Varron—1, 47.
Prov. Carthage -	- 100 " -	- Idem., 2, 44.
Attica -	- 50 " -	- Theoph—8, 7.
Judea -	- 60 " -	- Matth., 13.
Spain -	- 40 " -	- Merula, 2d part.
Babylon -	- 300 " -	- Herod—1.

STATISTICS OF BANKS.

Bank Capital of the United States.

(From the Banker's Magazine.)

The following table comprises from the latest official tables, a correct exhibit of the number of banks, amount of bank capital, circulation and specie in each of the states. A few only are estimates, and these from correct data.

States.	No. of Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.	Specie.
N. Y. Country	144	19,356,000	19,270,000	2,533,000
New York City	25	24,003,000	6,967,000	6,574,000
Penn. Country	34	7,866,000	6,400,000	2,900,000
Philadelphia	14	9,222,000	4,500,000	4,200,000
Ohio	48	5,706,000	8,321,000	2,604,000
Virginia	36	10,502,000	9,308,000	2,990,000
Tennessee	20	8,056,000	3,000,000	1,206,000
Kentucky	16	7,018,000	5,483,000	2,920,000
North Carolina	18	3,525,000	3,070,000	1,290,000
Mass. Country	83	13,249,000	10,988,000	658,000
Boston City	26	18,863,000	7,208,000	3,286,000
Georgia	20	5,109,000	3,200,000	1,448,000
Indiana	13	2,082,000	3,900,000	1,084,000
South Carolina	14	11,431,000	2,442,000	681,000
Alabama, Mobile	1	1,500,000	2,311,000	1,097,000
Maine	33	2,959,000	2,536,000	260,000
Maryland Country,	12	1,877,000	1,510,000	600,000
Baltimore	11	6,973,000	2,104,000	1,832,000
Missouri	6	1,201,000	2,404,000	2,314,000
New Jersey	25	3,750,000	2,700,000	636,000
Louisiana	6	17,663,000	3,514,000	7,252,000
Connecticut	33	8,705,000	4,437,000	462,000
Vermont	32	2,959,000	2,536,000	260,000
New Hampshire	20	1,800,000	1,512,000	144,000
Michigan	3	7,660,000	600,000	200,000
Rhode Island	62	11,023,000	2,842,000	325,000
Delaware	8	1,390,000	500,000	150,000
District of Columbia	4	1,328,000	500,000	150,000
Wisconsin	1	225,000	180,000	120,000
	<hr/> 768	<hr/> 209,331,000	<hr/> 125,233,000	<hr/> 49,270,000

States and Territories without Banks.*

	Population.
Illinois - - - - -	476,000
Mississippi - - - - -	376,000
Iowa - - - - -	43,000
Florida - - - - -	54,000
Arkansas - - - - -	98,000

* A new bank has lately gone into operation at Galveston, Texas, with a capital of \$300,000.

From the same source we have also a list of the banking capital in all the cities which possess over one million of capital each.

Cities.	No. of Banks.	Capital.
1. New York - - - - -	25	\$24,003,000
2. Boston - - - - -	26	18,863,000
3. New Orleans - - - - -	6	17,663,000
4. Philadelphia - - - - -	14	9,222,000
5. Charleston, S. C. - - - - -	7	9,153,000
6. Providence - - - - -	23	8,040,000
7. Baltimore - - - - -	11	6,973,000
8. Nashville, Tenn. - - - - -	3	6,180,000
9. Hartford, Conn. - - - - -	5	3,732,000
10. Louisville, Ky. - - - - -	3	2,960,000
11. Pittsburgh, Pa. - - - - -	4	2,755,000
12. Augusta, Geo. - - - - -	6	2,625,000
13. Albany, N. Y. - - - - -	7	2,462,000
14. Richmond, Va. - - - - -	3	2,115,000
15. Savannah - - - - -	4	1,890,000
16. Salem - - - - -	7	1,750,000
17. New Haven - - - - -	4	1,678,000
18. Cincinnati - - - - -	6	1,660,000
19. Lexington, Ky. - - - - -	2	1,517,000
20. Mobile, - - - - -	1	1,500,000
21. Troy, N. Y. - - - - -	5	1,475,000
22. Newark, N. J. - - - - -	3	1,408,000
23. New Bedford - - - - -	4	1,300,000
24. Utica - - - - -	4	1,260,000
25. Petersburg, Va. - - - - -	3	1,170,000
26. Rochester, N. Y. - - - - -	5	1,160,000
27. Washington, D. C. - - - - -	3	1,029,000
28. Wilmington, N. C. - - - - -	3	1,000,000
Total in 28 cities	194	\$136,547,000
Total in other parts of the U. S.	574	73,000,000
Total in U. States	768	\$209,831,000

The amounts of banking capital above stated are by no means indicative of the relative wealth or of business done at the several places named. There are several cities and towns not mentioned where there is a large export and import trade, and much wealth. Among these, we may especially mention Buffalo, Cleveland, St. Louis, Brooklyn, Charlestown, Mass., Norfolk, Nantucket, and New London. The amount of bank capital at Mobile is very small, while its exports are equal to ten millions annually. The 28 cities named above, it will be observed, have about two-thirds of the banking capital of the union;

and it may be added, that they have also continually in their vaults a still larger proportion of the specie in the country. While the country banks enjoy the largest share of the circulation, in proportion to their capital, the city banks, it is well known, have much the greatest proportion of deposits, which are equally a source of profit and advantage with the circulation.

From the preceding tables, it appears that the circulation of bank notes in the United States on the 1st January, 1848, was \$209,831,000.

In 1830, the circulation was \$61,323,898.

On the 1st January, 1840, it was \$116,572,970. In 1843, it had sunk to \$58,563,688.

In addition to the foregoing general statement, we are enabled to give some statistics of more recent date. We hope to have special returns hereafter from every state.

The report of the comptroller of the State of New York exhibits the condition of the banks of that state in 1847, to be as follows:—

Resources.

Loans and dividends,	\$76,012,891
Loans, dividends and discounts to directors,	4,588,259
Loans and discounts to brokers,	1,960,464
Real estate,	3,506,965
Bonds and mortgages,	2,624,684
Stocks and promissory notes,	13,410,024
Bank fund,	137,392
Loss and expense account,	521,935
Overdrafts,	194,132
Specie,	7,418,928
Cash items,	7,465,090
Bills of solvent banks,	3,356,089
Bills of suspended banks,	2,826
Due from banks and bankers,	12,120,132
Add for cents,	517
Total resources,	\$133,320,328

Liabilities.

Capital,	\$43,559,518
Profits,	6,206,668
Notes in circulation, (old emission),	668,396
do. do. (registered,)	25,201,735
Due Treasurer of the State,	1,421,770
“ Canal fund,	1,553,925
“ Depositors on demand,	34,457,341
“ Individuals,	1,212,454
“ Banks,	18,237,010
Amount due not included under other heads,	801,226
Add for cents,	285
Total liabilities,	\$133,320,328

The situation of the New Orleans banks for 1847, is shown in the report of the board of commerce of that city:—

On the 25th day of December of the said year, the aggregate circulation of those banks amounted to	\$3,709,054 00
Their deposits to	8,308,332 74
Other liabilities	1,350,271 99
Total	13,367,657 73

Their assets were as follows:

Specie	7,578,510	61
Loans and deposits payable in full at maturity,	8,400,699	32
Due by foreign and domestic banks	2,763,399	43
Other cash assets	346,090	59
Total	19,088,699	95
Excess of the movement assets	5,721,042	22

As to the dead weight, it was composed as follows:

Capital paid in	15,575,970	00
Assets	16,861,944	60
Liabilities other than movement	1,342,474	00

Total liabilities of movement and dead weight (exclusive of capital)	14,710,131	74
Total assets of movement and of dead weight	35,950,644	55
Leaving an excess of assets of	21,240,512	81

The following are the leading features of the Bank of Kentucky and branches, in the months of January and July, in 1845, '46, '47 and '48:—

	July '45.	Jan. '46.	Jan. '47.	July '47.	Jan. '48.
Loans,	2,888,924	8,093,840	2,953,061	2,787,472	2,642,216
Specie,	1,309,677	1,275,309	1,240,305	1,267,727	1,374,398
Circulation,	2,156,070	2,586,872	2,434,659	2,611,980	2,781,706
Deposits,	825,602	738,166	602,093	627,876	665,437
Net profit last six months,					\$159,415
Dividend No. 20, for January, 1848, 25 per cent.					93,302

Balance carried to Stock Fund Account, \$45,618 24

The State Bank of Indiana appears to have done well during the past year. The following comparative exhibit shows an improvement in almost every item:

	Nov. 1847.	Nov. 1846.		
Discount line,	\$3,038,798	\$3,018,743	Inc.,	\$20,055
Suspended debt,	460,115	577,647	Dec.,	117,532
Surplus fund,	453,444	413,563	Inc.,	39,881
Circulation,	3,606,452	3,336,533	Inc.,	269,919
Specie,	1,083,979	1,003,647	Inc.,	80,332
Eastern deposits,	839,209	370,333	Inc.,	469,876

New Jersey Banks.

There are now twenty-four banks in the State.

Capital stock,	\$3,570,700	00
Circulation, January 1, 1848,	2,699,429	60
Specie,	636,388	19
Deposits,	1,745,581	17
Discounts,	6,016,085	48
Notes of and due from other banks,	1,307,981	94
Notes due to other banks,	248,847	13
Balance of profit and loss, or surplus,	472,034	51
Real estate owned by banks,	290,993	81
Suspense, or doubtful,	67,298	20
Bonds and mortgages,	213,608	57
Stock, loans, (special,) &c.	161,284	69

A table of the condition of the banks of Pennsylvania, in November last.

	Bills discounted.	Circulation.	Spe. & Tr. N.	Due depositors.
Pennsylvania Bank,	2,354,644	492,092	272,640	828,248
Philadelphia Bank,	2,781,045	693,384	649,718	1,409,571
North America,	1,869,664	430,426	981,993	1,278,491
Commercial Bank,	1,583,539	258,429	257,462	761,226
Far. and Mech's,	2,414,399	613,925	416,349	1,468,751
Girard Bank,	648,550	255,335	320,356	422,030
Southwark Bank,	690,117	237,020	298,925	525,292
Bank of Commerce,	460,816	155,545	185,473	225,239
Mechanics' Bank,	1,359,186	367,055	192,702	604,062
Western Bank,	1,252,448	277,365	189,841	651,606
Northern Liberties,	961,232	310,147	248,089	744,495
Penn Township Bank,	757,000	242,770	203,050	500,330
Man. and Mech's,	781,879	280,715	164,272	325,759
Kensington,	692,542	221,517	143,765	408,767
Germantown Bank,	215,606	80,670	25,915	114,128
Pittsburgh Bank,	1,586,216	440,640	329,417	864,119
Exch. Bank Pittsburgh,	1,180,101	546,670	234,718	307,013
Mer. and Man. "	843,487	370,885	128,737	220,366
Farmers' Dep. "	219,593		19,848	163,170
Miners', Pottsville,	561,266	330,685	28,593	167,997
Farmers', Schuylkill,	207,566	130,320	17,633	154,003
Farmers', Bucks,	174,181	73,269	24,712	63,886
Doylestown Bank,	116,594	90,435	66,025	63,356
Chester Co. Bank,	434,404	351,552	92,205	215,373
Harrisburg Bank,	457,812	355,680	61,125	138,755
Dauphin Dep. Bank,	376,666		77,617	245,059
Middletown Bank,	261,084	274,035	125,907	469,995
Lancaster Bank,	511,837	585,650	252,963	367,278
Lancaster Co. Bank,	322,054	255,765	63,709	
Farmers', Reading,	611,696	535,670	196,916	
Northumberland,	324,892	340,661	51,371	
West Branch Bank,	118,038	169,522	13,468	
Col. Bk. and Br. Co.,	252,927	175,324	47,045	64,177

The stockholders of the Bank of the United States recently held their annual meeting. The following is the condition of the bank.

Bank of the United States—Circulation, Post Notes, Deposits, &c., Jan. 1st, 1848.

Bank and Branch notes outstanding,	-	-	-	\$3,501,376 90
Post notes, other than those issued to the city banks	-	-	-	350,793 07
Individual depositors and certificates of deposit	-	-	-	363,151 12
Distant bank balances	-	-	-	180,502 00

\$4,395,823 09

Bank and Branch and post notes in the hands of the

1st Trust	-	-	-	-	\$168,393 00
2d "	-	-	-	-	1,279,181 20
3d "	-	-	-	-	1,783,786 35

\$3,231,360 55

\$1,164,462 54

The following synopsis presents a condensed view of the Banks of Baltimore and their condition, compared with the reports of 1845 and 1846:

BANKS.	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Merchants', -	2,277,770	315,219	208,550	365,351
Baltimore, -	1,759,372	202,767	247,399	455,708
Union, -	1,307,518	139,065	166,305	276,951
Farmer's and Planter's, -	1,074,936	240,411	425,628	258,837
Mechanics', -	1,112,612	157,449	209,192	545,721
Com'l and Far., -	885,548	267,767	214,336	358,941
Far. and Mer. -	418,108	82,585	109,171	107,468
Chesapeake, -	508,716	66,536	106,518	246,857
Marine, -	468,443	96,482	113,789	206,627
Western, -	581,621	244,496	256,617	240,127
Franklin, -	305,319	21,390	47,208	61,271
The Baltimore banks	10,699,963	1,834,160	2,104,712	3,123,859
had on Jan. 4, 1847,	10,082,235	1,814,308	1,986,248	3,261,099
Jan. 5, 1846, -	10,142,299	1,861,500	2,159,140	3,113,750

The Boston banks declared dividends payable in April, 1848, amounting to \$762,800, on a capital of \$18,080,000. It is the largest dividend ever paid in Boston.

We annex statistics of the *Banks of England and France.*

BANK OF ENGLAND.

	1847		1848	
	Nov. 25.	Dec. 24.	Jan. 22.	March 18.
Notes issued - -	£23,525,845	25,609,070	26,559,265	28,414,360
Gold coin and bullion	8,315,633	10,262,731	11,122,376	12,889,560
Silver bullion - -	1,210,212	1,346,344	1,436,889	1,524,800
<i>Banking Department.</i>				
Rest - - -	3,623,323	3,615,579	3,726,364	3,991,550
Public deposits - -	7,219,802	9,235,978	4,082,448	6,957,392
Other do. - -	7,866,482	8,243,203	10,774,870	9,773,110
Seven day and other bills	863,487	807,198	903,278	869,742
Government securities -	10,663,607	11,065,267	11,464,665	11,572,180
Other do. - -	18,791,117	16,979,060	14,510,363	12,896,563
Notes - - -	4,223,095	7,786,180	7,447,385	10,967,270
Gold and silver coin -	491,112	627,451	617,547	708,781

CIRCULATION OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

	Nov. 25.	Dec. 24.	Jan. 22.	March 18.
Notes issued - - -	23,525,845	25,609,075	26,559,265	28,414,360
Notes on hand - - -	4,228,095	7,786,180	7,447,385	10,967,270
Actual circulation -	£19,297,750	17,822,895	19,111,880	17,447,090

CIRCULATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN.

	Jan. 1.		Increase.	Decrease.
	1848	Jan. 29. 1848		
Bank of England - -	£17,956,761	18,977,446	1,020,685	
Private Banks - - -	3,528,273	3,745,700	217,427	—
Joint Stock Banks -	2,410,222	2,534,855	124,633	—
Total in England -	23,895,256	25,258,001	1,362,745	—
Scotland - - -	3,341,317	3,161,022	—	180,295
Ireland - - -	5,196,116	5,233,916	37,800	—
United Kingdom - -	£32,432,689	33,652,939	1,220,250	—

BANK OF FRANCE.

Discounts and operations of the Bank of France	-	-	1,726,947,000	francs.
“ of the Banks of the Departments	-	-	772,546,600	“
Circulation of the Bank of France	-	-	268,493,000	“
Do. of the Department Banks	-	-	86,507,800	“
Capital do. do.	-	-	24,350,000	“

The *Moniteur* publishes the following statement of the situation of the Bank of France, up to the evening of the 22d of March:

Assets.

Cash and ingots,	-	-	56,165,639f.	14c.
Cash at the branch banks,	-	-	52,078,877	00
Bills due this day,	-	-	9,743,050	96
Bills becoming due in Paris, of which 36,817,- 577f. 81c. are from the branch banks,	-	-	245,716,044	02
Bills in the branch banks,	-	-	55,442,987	23
Advances in coin and ingots,	-	-	2,903,300	00
Advances on public securities of France,	-	-	12,741,982	90
Due from the branch banks on their notes in cir- culation,	-	-	11,194,550	00
Rentes of the reserve fund,	-	-	10,000,000	00
Rentes of disposable fund,	-	-	11,660,197	89
Hotel and furniture of the bank,	-	-	4,000,000	00
Interest in the branch bank at Algiers,	-	-	1,000,000	00
Interest in the national discount bank	-	-	200,000	00
Bills protested,	-	-	2,704,274	15
Bills arising from the sales of rentes to Russia, yet to be received,	-	-	1,377,887	75
Expenses of administration,	-	-	280,962	75
Sundries,	-	-	17,128	08

477,177,093f. 87c.

Debts and Obligations.

Capital,	-	-	67,900,000f.	00c.
Reserve fund,	-	-	10,000,000	00
Reserve immobiliere,	-	-	4,000,000	00
Notes to bearer, in circulation,	-	-	271,882,800	00
Do. of the branch bank,	-	-	11,194,750	00
Do. to order (post bills),	-	-	2,002,652	10
Account current with treasury,	-	-	19,759,764	94
Various accounts current,	-	-	77,272,963	49
National discount bank—credit from bills discounted,	-	-	1,089,709	35
Bills payable at sight	-	-	3,043,100	00
Re-discounts at the last half year,	-	-	728,692	37
Dividends unpaid,	-	-	346,766	25
Discounts, interest and expenses,	-	-	2,676,360	86
Branch Bank of Algiers—sum not yet employed in treasury bonds,	-	-	1,069,097	19
Branch bank drafts to be paid,	-	-	1,017,198	47
Sundries,	-	-	193,240	85

477,177,093f. 87c.

GOLD AND SILVER.

In the "Annuaire de la Statistique," published at Paris, for 1848, we find a very interesting article by Chevalier on the past and present production of the precious metals. The subject is one of universal interest, as by gold and silver the values of all things are regulated and ascertained, and a steady and certain supply of these substances so necessary to all the operations of life, is of the first importance. We desire, therefore, to know what have been, and what now are, the sources of the supply. Our limits will only permit us to make brief extracts.

For three centuries, the greater part of the gold and silver used by civilized nations, was drawn from America. Mexico and Peru produced the largest quantity of silver, and New Grenada and Brazil the most gold; from Chili also a large supply was drawn.

Within the last thirty years, a considerable amount of gold has been procured within the United States.

During the same period, the production of the precious metals in Mexico and South America, have not been so large as formerly, owing probably to the civil wars which have convulsed that part of the world.

Since the commencement of the present century, the quantities produced in Europe and Asia have been on the increase. From the Russian dominions especially, there have recently been very extraordinary supplies of gold. The ranges of the Ural and Altain mountains are immense depositories of the precious metals, a fact known to the ancients, and mentioned by Herodotus, but the knowledge of which was lost. They have been again explored and their riches developed; and the gold now obtained from Russia exceeds that which is received from all the rest of the world besides.

The total production of the mines of Gold and Silver in America from the discovery to January 1, 1846.

Countries.	SILVER.		GOLD.		Total value in dollars.
	Value in millions francs.	Value in millions francs.	Value in millions francs.	Value in millions francs.	
United States, - - -			64		11,904,000*
Mexico, - - -	13,507		1,306		2,755,218,000
New Grenada, - - -	55		1,918		367,064,000
Peru, - - -	12,925		1,163		2,620,368,000
Brazil, - - -			4,606		856,716,000
Chili, - - -	216		854		199,020,000
		26,703		9,911	\$6,810,290,000†

The annual production of the mines of Gold and Silver in America at the present time.

Countries.	SILVER.		GOLD.		Total value in dollars.
	Value in francs.	Value in francs.	Value in francs.	Value in francs.	
United States, - - -			6,499,000		1,208,814‡
Mexico, - - -	86,793,000		10,184,000		18,037,722
New Grenada, - - -	1,086,000		17,062,000		3,375,528
Peru, - - -	25,146,000		2,439,000		5,130,810
Bolivia, - - -	11,534,000		1,529,000		2,429,718
Brazil, - - -			8,610,000		1,601,460
Chili, - - -	7,437,000		3,689,000		2,069,436
Various, - - -	4,444,000		1,722,000		1,145,773
		136,480,000		51,434,000	\$34,952,004

* The deposits of gold in the mint of the United States, up to, and including 1847, were \$12,741,653.

† Other accounts make it \$6,200,000,000.

‡ The amount deposited in the United States Mint from U. S. mines in 1846, was \$1,139,357, and in 1847, \$889,085.

The quantity of Gold and Silver deposited in market from the producing countries other than America, at the commencement of the present century.

Countries.	SILVER.	GOLD.	Total value in dollars.
	Value in francs.	Value in francs.	
Europe, - - -	11,704,000	4,478,000	\$3,009,852
Turkey in Asia, - - -	2,449,000		455,514
Russia in Asia, - - -	4,821,000	2,239,000	1,313,160
Archipelago of Sunda, or Malaysia, } - - -		16,189,000	3,011,154
Afrique, - - -		13,778,000	2,564,708
	<u>19,027,000</u>	<u>34,684,000</u>	<u>\$10,354,388</u>

The annual quantities of Gold and Silver delivered by different countries into the general market.

Countries.	SILVER.	GOLD.	Total value in dollars.
	Value in francs.	Value in francs.	
America, - - -	136,480,000	51,434,000	\$34,952,004
Europe, - - -	26,667,000	4,478,000	5,792,970
Russia, - - -	4,604,000	402,864,000	75,789,048
Africa, - - -		13,778,000	2,564,708
Archipelago of Sunda, or Malaysia, } - - -		16,189,000	3,011,154
Various, - - -	4,444,000	3,444,000	1,467,168
	<u>472,195,000</u>	<u>192,189,000</u>	<u>\$123,577,052</u>

The amount of specie imported into the United States 'from 1842 to 1847 (inclusive) is stated at \$64,207,043, and the amount exported during the same period, \$23,699,246.

MANUFACTURES.

By the census of 1840, the amount of capital invested in manufactures in the United States, was \$267,726,579, while the total value of the articles manufactured was \$294,106,772. The following table of the value of the articles manufactured is gathered from the census returns.

Manufacture of	Dollars.
Cotton - - -	46,350,453
Wool - - -	20,696,999
Leather - - -	33,134,403
Flax - - -	322,205
Cordage - - -	4,078,306
Mixed manufactures	6,545,503
Silk - - -	119,814
Paper - - -	6,153,092
Cast iron - - -	8,607,090
Bar iron - - -	13,806,310
Cannon and small arms	1,000,000
Hardware and cutlery	6,451,967

Machinery	-	-	-	-	-	10,980,581
Hats, caps, and bonnets	-	-	-	-	-	10,180,801
Glass	-	-	-	-	-	2,890,293
Earthenware	-	-	-	-	-	1,104,825
Drugs, medicines, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	4,151,899
Soap and candles	-	-	-	-	-	6,000,000
Musical instruments	-	-	-	-	-	953,924
Carriages and wagons	-	-	-	-	-	10,897,887
Ships	-	-	-	-	-	7,016,004
Furniture	-	-	-	-	-	7,555,405
Sugar refined	-	-	-	-	-	3,250,700
Confectionery	-	-	-	-	-	1,769,571
Gunpowder	-	-	-	-	-	1,795,469
Precious metals	-	-	-	-	-	4,734,960
Various metals	-	-	-	-	-	9,779,442
Domestic goods made in families	-	-	-	-	-	29,023,380
Non-enumerated articles	-	-	-	-	-	34,785,353
Total	-	-	-	-	-	\$294,106,772

It is computed that there were employed in 1820, in the United States in manufactures, 349,506 persons, and in 1840, 791,749, while at the same time 3,719,951 were employed in agriculture, and 117,607 in commerce.

The returns of the census of 1840 of the productive industry of the country, were evidently imperfect. The present Secretary of the Treasury estimates the aggregate amount of products of the United States at \$3,028,830,000. As an evidence of the increase since the census of 1840, we give the results of the labor and employment of capital in Massachusetts, the principal manufacturing state in the Union, for the year 1845.

By the census of 1840, the estimate of the domestic industry of Massachusetts, it was put down at \$75,470,297. From a table published in 1845, we make the following extracts:

Amount produced	-	-	-	-	\$124,735,264
Capital invested	-	-	-	-	\$59,145,767
Hands employed	-	-	-	-	152,767

The following are among the largest items in the table:

	Value.
Boots and Shoes manufactured	\$14,799,140
Cotton goods do.	12,193,449
Fishery, Whale	10,371,167
do. Cod, Mackerel, &c.	1,484,137
Woolen goods	8,877,478
Leather	3,836,657
Calicoes	4,779,817
Candles, Oil, and Sperm	3,613,796
Bleaching and Coloring	2,166,000
Machinery	2,022,648
Rolling Mills, Nails, &c.	2,738,300
Paper	1,750,273
Hollow Ware, Casting, &c.	1,280,141
Cars, Carriages, &c.	1,343,576
Cabinet Ware	1,476,679
Stone, Building	1,065,599

Straw Bonnets, Hats, and Braid	-	-	-	1,649,496
Vessels, Shipping	-	-	-	1,172,147
Wood, Bark, Charcoal, &c.	-	-	-	1,088,656
Cattle (No. 276,549)	-	-	-	5,327,199
Grain	-	-	-	2,228,229
Hay	-	-	-	5,214,357
Horses (No. 65,181)	-	-	-	3,451,118
Sheep (No. 354,943)	-	-	-	558,284
Swine (No. 104,740)	-	-	-	917,435
Potatoes	-	-	-	1,309,030
Butter	-	-	-	1,116,709

In other parts of the Union, we have similar evidences of the progressive state and prosperity of the manufacturing interest. Under the head of cotton, we have mentioned the impulse which has been given to manufactures in the southern states. The subject is one of absorbing interest to the American people; and we have, therefore, in preparation from recent data, full tables of the present condition and progress of the manufactures, and of the results of the whole productive industry of the Union.

A Table of the average rate of Wages in the United States.

It often happens that wages vary in different sections of the same state, and in large cities good laborers generally command \$1 per day.

		Per day.	Per month.
Maine, New Hamp- shire, and Vermont,	{ mechanics	\$1	
	{ laborers	62 cts.	\$12
Massachusetts,* Island, and Conn.,	{ mechanics	1.25	26
	{ laborers	75	12 to \$15
New York,	{ mechanics	75 to 1.50	20 to 25
	{ laborers	50 to 75	10 to 12
New Jersey,	{ mechanics	1 to \$1.25	25
	{ laborers	75 cts.	12
Pennsylvania, and Ohio,	{ mechanics	1 to \$1.25	20
	{ laborers	50 cts.	10
Maryland and Dis- trict of Columbia,	{ mechanics	1	
	{ laborers (white),	50 to 75	10
Virginia, North and S. Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, and Tennes- see,	{ mechanics (white),	1 to \$1.50	25 to 40
	{ mechanics (col'd),	1 to 1.25	20, or 200 per annum
Alabama and Missis- sippi,	{ laborers (white),	50 cts.	10 to 12
	{ laborers (col'd),	25 to 40	5 to 10 or \$60 to \$100 per annum.
Louisiana, Florida, and Arkansas,	{ mechanics	1.50 to \$2	25 to \$40
	{ laborers	25 to 50	12 to 15
Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan,	{ mechanics	\$1.50 to \$2.50	30 to 50
	{ laborers	50	15
Iowa, Wisconsin, and Missouri,	{ mechanics	\$1 to \$1.50	20 to 30
	{ laborers	50 to 75	8 to 12
	{ mechanics	1.50 to \$2	
	{ laborers	75 to \$1	10 to 15

* In Lowell, the male operatives are paid 80 to 88 cents a day, exclusive of board. The females earn from \$3 to \$4 a week.

The Tariffs of 1842 and 1846.

The following is a list of duties on the principal articles reduced to the *ad valorem* scale, or so much per cent. on the value.

Articles.	Tariff of 1842. per ct.	Tariff of 1846. per ct.	Articles.	Tariff of 1842. per ct.	Tariff of 1846. per ct.
Wool, coarse - - -	5	30	Iron, cables - - - -	87	30
all others - - -	40	30	cut nails, &c. - - -	39	30
manufactures of -	40	30	wrought nails - - -	58.25	30
Carpets, Wilton, - -	23.7	30	Cutlery - - - - -	30	30
treble ingrain - -	73	30	Lead - - - - -	3 cts.	20
Clothing, made - -	50	30		per lb.	
Cotton - - - - -	61	Free.	Glass, cut (average) -	72	40
manufactures of -	30	25	plain, moulded, - -		
do. better quality	43	25	or pressed - - -	26	30
Silk, manufactures of -	24.25	25	tumblers - - - -	137	30
sewing, &c. - - -	38	30	window, crown - - -	39	20
Cables and cordage -	120	25	Coal, mineral - - -	69	30
Iron, bars rolled - -	75	30	China, porcelain, &c. -	30	30
not rolled - - -	35.5	30	Leather, tanned - - -	17	20
pig - - - - -	49	30	Boots and shoes, men's,	30	30
vessels of, cast - -	51	30	women's and chil-		
nailrods, &c. - - -	99	30	dren's - - - - -	44	30
Furs, undressed - -	5	10	Sperm or wax candles	16	20
Hats, of fur, caps, &c.	35	30	Tallow candles - - -	38	10
of wool - - - - -	18 cts.	20	Salt - - - - -	76.75	20
	each.		Beef and Pork - - -	51	20
Feathers, for beds - -	25	25	Cheese - - - - -	69	30
Clocks - - - - -	25	15	Butter - - - - -	63	20
Jewelry - - - - -	20	30	Wheat - - - - -	27	20
Mahogany, manf's of	30	40	Indian Corn - - - -	26	20
Boards and lumber -	30	20	Potatoes - - - - -	20 cts.	20
Brushes and brooms -	30	30		112 lbs.	
Dolls and Toys - - -	30	30	Brandy - - - - -	134	100
Paper, bank-note and			Other distilled spirits -	143	100
writing, (average)	56	30	Wine, Madeira - - -	5.25	40
Playing cards - - -	125	30	Canary - - - - -	158	40
	2½ cts.		Claret - - - - -	45	40
Sugar, raw - - - -	per lb	} 30	Sicily Madeira - - -	50	40
brown - - - - -	or 62½		37 other wines, vary-		
	per ct.		ing from - - - - -	8 to 73	40
clarified - - - - -	105	30	Cordials, &c. - - -	41	100
refined, white - - -	92	30	Cigars, &c. - - - -	28	40
Molasses - - - - -	29	30	Fruit from West Indies		
Sweetmeats, &c. - - -	25	40	in bulk - - - - -	Free.	20
Pimento - - - - -	120	40	Tea and coffee - - -	Free.	Free.

Articles exempt from duty by the tariff of 1846, are: Animals for breed; bullion; cabinets and collections of curiosities; coffee and tea in American vessels; coins, gold, silver, and copper; cotton; garden seeds; goods, wares, and merchandise of the United States, exported and brought back in the same condition; guano; household effects of persons coming from abroad for their own use; models of inventions; oils of American fisheries; paintings, &c., of American artists, not objects of merchandise; specimens of natural science; trees,

bulbs, plants, &c.; wearing apparel, books, tools, instruments, &c., of persons arriving in the United States, for use, and not for sale.

NATIONAL FINANCES AND REVENUE.

United States.

The receipts into the Treasury for the fiscal year ending the 30th June 1847, were	-	-	\$26,346,790	37
Derived from customs,	-	-	23,743,664	66
Sales of public lands,	-	-	2,498,335	20
Incidental sources,	-	-	100,570	00
The expenditures for the same period, were	-	-	59,451,177	66
Of which amount there was expended towards payment of public debts,	-	-	3,522,682	37
The public debt on the 1st December 1847, was	-	-	45,659,659	40
The addition made to the public debt since 4th March 1845, is	-	-	27,870,859	78
The estimated receipts into the treasury, for the fiscal year ending 30th June 1848	-	-	42,886,545	80
To be derived from customs,	-	-	31,000,000	00
Sales of public lands,	-	-	3,500,000	00

The following table will show the amount in the several depositories on the 27th of March last, subject to the draft of the United States Treasurer.

Assistant treasurer, Boston,	-	-	35,921	11
Assistant treasurer, New York,	-	-	536,754	73
Assistant treasurer, Philadelphia,	-	-	88,530	37
Treasury of the U. S., Washington,	-	-	125,272	35
Assistant treasurer, Charleston,	-	-	94,698	05
Assistant treasurer, New Orleans,	-	-	133,304	98
Assistant treasurer, St. Louis,	-	-	202,852	28
Depository at Buffalo,	-	-	603	76
Depository at Baltimore,	-	-	40,465	63
Depository at Richmond,	-	-		64
Depository at Wilmington, N. C.,	-	-	2,353	88
Depository at Savannah,	-	-	3,088	40
Depository at Mobile,	-	-	28,921	04
Depository at Nashville,	-	-	959	46
Depository at Cincinnati,	-	-	11,848	36
Depository at Pittsburgh,	-	-	299	39
Depository at Norfolk,	-	-	2,315	93
Depository at Little Rock, Ark.,	-	-	11,596	14
Depository at Jefferson, In.,	-	-	69,463	81
Depository at Chicago,	-	-	61,782	00
Depository at Detroit,	-	-	3,892	45
Mint of the U. S., Philadelphia,	-	-	411,728	00
Branch Mint of the U. S., Charlotte,	-	-	32,000	00
Do. do. Dahlonega	-	-	26,850	00
Do. do. New Orleans,	-	-	79,421	95

\$2,004,924 72

Deduct suspense account and outstanding drafts,

60,281 90

\$1,944,642 82

During the month of April 1848, the following announcement of the anticipated revenue has been made.

The receipts of the customs for the fiscal year were estimated by the secretary of the treasury to amount to \$31,000,000, a sum which will certainly be realized, as \$28,000,000 have already been collected, and there yet remains two and one-third months of the fiscal year. The amount estimated to accrue from the sales of public lands, during the same period, was \$3,300,000, of which \$2,750,000 have been collected, and the large Miami sales coming off before the expiration of the year.

England and France.

The New York Herald has recently made the following statements:—

The debts of these two countries amount in the aggregate to nearly five thousand millions of dollars, the interest on which annually amounts to about two hundred and fifty millions of dollars—a sum nearly as large as the aggregate indebtedness of every state in the American Union and of the general government. The annexed statement exhibits the aggregate indebtedness, and the annual receipts and expenditures at several periods:—

Finances of Great Britain—Income, Expenditures and Indebtedness.

	Income.	Expenditures.	Indebtedness.
1836	£50,494,732	£48,787,639	£787,638,816
1843	50,071,000	50,030,000	795,130,240
1844	52,835,124	50,739,697	—
1845	53,060,354	49,742,712	—
1846	53,790,138	50,943,830	785,115,000
1847	51,250,000	54,596,000	—

In 1689, the public debt amounted to £664,263; in 1702, to £16,394,702; 1714, £54,145,373; 1763, £138,865,430; 1784, £249,851,628; 1817, £840,850,491. Since 1817, the debt has been largely reduced, and is now less than eight hundred millions of pounds sterling. Since 1815, Great Britain has been at peace with the world, and the debt has been reduced about forty-five million pounds sterling.

A statement, showing the present position of the public debt of France, the periodical increase in the amount, and the different rates of interest paid upon the debt:—

Public Debt of France—1847.

	Capital in Francs.	Capital in Sterling.	Capital in Dollars.
5 per Cents	2,940,000,000	115,294,000	576,470,000
4½ per Cents	22,222,222	871,000	4,375,000
4 per Cents	550,000,000	21,569,000	107,845,000
3 per Cents	1,833,333,333	71,891,000	359,475,000
	5,345,555,555	£209,629,000	\$1,048,165,000

The next dividends which fall due will be those of the five per cents, on the 23d of March.

When Louis Philippe ascended the throne, the debt of France amounted to \$860,000,000. Since 1830 the increase has been as follows:—

Increase of the Public Debt of France.

Date.			Amount in Francs.	Rate per cent.	Contract price.
1830	-	-	40,000,000	5	102
1831	-	-	120,000,000	5	84
1832	-	-	150,000,000	5	98·50
1841	-	-	150,000,000	3	78·52½
1844	-	-	200,000,000	3	84·75
1847	-	-	250,000,000	3	75·25
Total			910,000,000		

This increase is equal to one hundred and eighty-two millions of dollars, in a period of seventeen years.

State Indebtedness.

On the authority of a stock circular of Prime, Ward & Co., the following statement of the debts, revenue and expenditures of the several states was published in 1847. We do not vouch for its perfect accuracy.

States.	Accounts made up to	Debts.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
Massachu's	January 1, 1847	6,000,000	518,528	504,317
New York	Sept. 30, 1846	24,734,080	2,842,310	2,015,904
Penn'a	Nov. 30, 1846	40,789,877	3,529,057	3,529,264
Maryland	Dec. 1, 1846	15,038,030	917,752	873,821
Virginia	October 1, 1846	7,384,793	808,807	735,040
S. Carolina	Nov. 25, 1846	5,000,000	306,831	347,704
Georgia	April 1, 1846	1,465,250	626,958	285,850
Alabama	January 1, 1846	13,646,078	274,246	287,951
Mississippi	March 1, 1845	7,271,707	619,888	323,757
Louisiana	Dec. 31, 1846	16,238,131	648,860	423,746
Tennessee	October 31, 1846	3,957,356	305,119	245,074
Kentucky	Dec. 1, 1846	4,596,026	352,405	165,002
Ohio	Nov. 15, 1846	19,246,002	2,081,384	2,038,027
Indiana	October 31, 1846	13,100,000	293,861	69,136
Illinois	-	14,000,000	not known	not known
Missouri	October 1, 1846	957,261	477,728	329,481
Michigan	January 1, 1847	5,200,000	227,697	165,125
Arkansas	October 1846	3,617,227	51,918	107,221
Florida	January 1, 1846	5,000,000	not known	not known
Texas	-	not known	not known	not known

"The ten states not included in the above list, viz: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, North Carolina, Iowa and Wisconsin, as also the District of Columbia, are without any public debt. Of the debt of Massachusetts, two-thirds (\$4,000,000) was created by loan to the Western Railroad Company, by whom it is now proposed to be paid off. Against the debt of New York an annual sum is appropriated chiefly from the canal revenues, to the purposes of a sinking-fund, which is expected to extinguish the whole in 1869. Pennsylvania has now a small excess of income over expenditure, but not yet enough to commence a sinking-fund, although this is contemplated in another year."

STATISTICS OF THE WEATHER.

Average temperature for fifty-eight years.

The following interesting table is derived from a meteorological account of the weather, by Charles Pierce, Esq., of *Philadelphia*. The record of each day was made at or before sunrise, and at two and ten o'clock, P. M. The uniformity of the temperature will be a matter of surprise to many. Only in one year has there been a difference of five degrees, and that was in 1816, when there was ice in every month. In twenty of the other years, the temperature did not vary one degree. Those who may desire to see the work of Mr. Pierce, which is truly an entertaining and curious book, will find it at the store of the publishers of *this Journal*.

Average Temperature of each Month in the year, from January 1, 1790, to March, 1848.

Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Average temperature of each year.
1790	44	32	38	50	56	70	78	74	66	50	40	30	52
1791	30	28	40	54	58	74	80	75	64	52	41	32	52½
1792	32	30	37	52	58	72	77	76	63	50	40	30	52
1793	40	32	34	46	62	76	81	74	70	64	38	30	53
1794	32	31	36	44	61	70	73	71	62	50	40	31	50
1795	30	30	34	50	68	70	78	70	64	52	41	30	51
1796	30	28	38	48	64	72	75	72	68	50	43	32	51½
1797	28	26	36	46	64	73	76	74	66	55	40	30	51
1798	28	26	34	44	65	74	80	77	69	55	40	28	51
1799	30	29	35	45	68	71	73	71	66	54	42	29	51
1800	28	27	36	47	70	72	74	72	68	52	41	30	51½
1801	34	28	36	54	66	70	72	70	64	53	43	34	52
1802	38	34	40	52	71	73	74	72	66	54	44	28	53½
1803	32	28	40	54	60	69	72	70	65	56	46	30	52
1804	28	28	38	50	62	67	70	69	70	55	44	34	51
1805	29	29	40	52	63	71	73	70	66	52	44	30	51½
1806	30	28	38	47	67	70	73	69	64	55	45	32	51½
1807	28	28	39	49	65	72	74	71	66	56	44	32	52
1808	27	32	37	50	68	74	75	73	67	53	40	30	52
1809	29	26	35	46	64	73	75	72	68	54	43	29	51
1810	36	27	37	48	58	70	72	69	66	56	45	28	51
1811	32	26	40	50	62	72	74	73	68	55	43	30	52
1812	28	27	37	48	60	70	73	71	67	56	47	28	51
1813	29	27	39	49	59	69	72	70	66	54	44	28	50½
1814	28	28	38	48	62	71	73	70	64	55	45	30	51
1815	26	24	38	52	64	73	74	72	67	57	42	26	51½
1816	32	28	36	47	57	64	68	66	62	52	41	32	49
1817	34	26	40	53	65	74	74	72	64	54	45	31	52½
1818	34	26	37	54	62	74	75	73	66	56	43	34	53

Average Temperature, &c.—Continued.

Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Average temperature of each year.
1819	30	28	39	53	60	72	73	71	64	54	44	26	51
1820	26	30	38	54	62	73	74	70	64	56	45	28	51 $\frac{3}{4}$
1821	25	32	37	53	65	72	74	73	65	55	41	26	51 $\frac{1}{4}$
1822	29	27	36	52	70	75	80	76	68	53	42	30	53
1823	34	36	40	51	64	71	74	70	65	55	46	36	53 $\frac{1}{2}$
1824	32	34	39	54	67	73	75	71	66	54	44	34	53 $\frac{3}{4}$
1825	34	32	40	55	62	75	80	72	64	56	44	34	54
1826	28	26	38	56	71	73	75	72	65	52	43	37	53
1827	28	27	36	50	62	71	75	70	64	46	38	36	50
1828	39	40	42	56	65	77	80	76	65	56	42	38	54
1829	29	27	38	55	64	73	75	75	66	56	44	34	53
1830	28	25	40	54	64	72	80	75	65	54	40	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$
1831	26	26	39	53	66	77	78	76	68	55	42	30	53
1832	25	27	34	55	62	71	78	74	66	57	28	25	51
1833	30	30	39	54	63	65	77	74	67	56	44	32	52 $\frac{1}{2}$
1834	29	29	38	53	64	69	77	73	65	56	43	33	52 $\frac{1}{4}$
1835	28	28	39	56	64	71	76	72	66	54	44	28	52
1836	28	24	35	50	63	67	76	70	67	49	41	33	50 $\frac{1}{4}$
1837	28	33	39	50	61	69	78	75	64	54	45	32	52 $\frac{1}{4}$
1838	38	24	41	47	58	75	81	77	67	50	40	29	53
1839	30	33	41	54	62	66	74	70	64	56	40	34	52
1840	24	39	44	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	61	69	74	74	60	54	43	30	52 $\frac{1}{4}$
1841	33	29	40	47	58	73	75	71	67	50	42	35	51 $\frac{1}{2}$
1842	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	47	53	60	68	74	72	64	53	38	32	52 $\frac{3}{4}$
1843	38	27	30	50	58	72	74	75	68	52	41	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	51 $\frac{1}{2}$
1844	27	32	42	56	65	70	74	73	66	53	44	35	53
1845	38	35	44	53	59	72	76	74	65	56	46	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	54
1846	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	42	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	63	69	74	75	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	55	46	35	54
1847	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	38	48	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	62	72	72	64	53	52	39	52
1848	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	34	38										

NATIONAL ARMORIES.

A statement of the expenses of the national armories, and of the number of arms, &c., manufactured during the year ending on the 30th of last June, has just been made. The total expenditure has been \$516,129 45, of which \$253,-304 84 was incurred at Springfield, and \$262,824 61 at Harper's Ferry. There have been manufactured 26,300 percussion muskets, 3,054 percussion rifles, 201 musketoons, 4,299 ball screws, 45,608 screw drivers, 23,475 wipers, 5,163 spring vices, 19,644 extra cones, 8,868 cone picks, and 435 bullet moulds.

(ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.)

OPIUM AND THE OPIUM TRADE.

By an American, lately a resident in China.

THE accession to the throne of China of the Mantchoo Tartars, terminated a long-continued and bloody warfare, and was succeeded by a peace which promised to be lasting. Although the Chinese were compelled to yield submission to their implacable northern foes, yet their national character was not lost, neither were the peculiar institutions of their country subverted. The same laws which for "tens of centuries" had exerted their salutary influence, were in the main continued in force, and China instead of being weakened by its change of rulers, received a new element of strength from the hardy Tartars who had invaded it. Unconscious of danger from the wide-spreading influence and increasing power of the nations beyond the "four seas," and still confident that its duration would equal that of time itself, the "middle kingdom" was slumbering in security, an easy prey to any bold adventurer.

The slumber was at length broken, and the adventurer came. No threats of punishment for violated faith, no mighty conquests of neighboring kingdoms foretold his onward progress. But an instrument of death more powerful than the sword, and more "terrible than an army with banners," preceded him. Silently and stealthily it entered the walled-domain; rapidly it spread a direful mania around. An idle few, by birth and fortune placed above the common herd, first felt its influence. From them it extended to the literati, and thence spread among the soldiery and common people, until all classes became infected with an appetite in which dwelt not only disease, wretchedness and death, but the means of the overthrow, already partially accomplished, of the mighty empire which had so long withstood unscathed the elements which had laid in the dust many of the most powerful nations of the globe. That instrument was *Opium*.

The use of opium, whether we view it in its direct effect upon its victims, or in its prospective influence upon the nation, is one of the most interesting subjects connected with China. The writer of this can truly say, that for him, it surpasses in interest all others. Having been a personal witness of the disease, misery and wretchedness produced by this pernicious drug upon many in that country, he naturally felt a deep sympathy for them, and when he reflected upon the serious consequences to the nation which had already resulted from its use, he could not resist the temptation to avail himself of all the means at his command for informing himself upon the

subject. Although he cannot expect that others will share with him in an equal degree this interest, yet he hopes to furnish some means of entertainment and instruction by a description of the cultivation of the poppy, the manufacture of opium, the trade in it, the effect of its use upon the people, and the calamities it is destined to bring upon the Chinese nation. Although he will chiefly devote himself to the subject as it relates to China—showing the evils of the traffic in the drug, and charging the responsibilities where they justly belong—yet he may find it necessary to speak of other countries, in describing the effect of opium as shown in the different methods of its use.

Opium is the concrete juice of the papaver somniferum. Whether it was first employed as a medicinal drug, or for the purpose of producing the pleasing and peculiar intoxication attendant upon its use, is not known. That the ancients were familiar with its effects is not doubted. Horace speaks of it under the name of *οπος Μηρων*, and in his *Odyssey* thus describes its effect:

“ Charmed with that potent drug, the exalted mind,
 All sense of woe, delivers to the wind—
 It clears the cloudy front of wrinkled care,
 And dries the tearful sluices of despair.
 Though on the blazing pile his parent lay,
 Or a lov'd brother groaned his life away,
 From morn to eve, impassive and serene,
 The man entranced would view the deathful scene.”

Virgil calls the plant from which it is obtained, “*ceriale papaver*,” and Ovid, knowing its soporific effect, crowns the night with it. Though probably a native of Asia Minor, the poppy has been introduced and cultivated with varied success, in almost every part of the world. In Italy, France, and some other countries of Europe, it is grown for the sake of the oil which is obtained from the seeds. In Turkey the cultivation is carried on extensively, and it is there grown entirely for the sake of the opium which it yields. The use of intoxicating liquors being forbidden by the laws of Mahomet, the Turks resort to this drug when they wish a temporary relief from their cares. The product of opium in Turkey is estimated at about 3000 chests per annum. In Persia it is also cultivated, and there, it is said, the habit of chewing opium is more prevalent even than in Turkey. In Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, Java and Penang, it is grown, but its yield is not sufficient to supply the demands for the drug. In the small islands of Java, the quantity consumed yearly exceeds 1000 chests. The inhabitants of the Malay peninsula smoke opium and chew tobacco, which is the reverse of the Turkish custom. In India, the opium pipe is presented by the host to his visitors, as is tea in China. In Siam, opium was formerly used extensively, but its use is now strictly forbidden by

law. In a commercial treaty into which the Siamese entered with the English East India Company in 1833, opium is declared a prohibited article. In England and in our own country, the poppy is found as an ornamental plant in gardens, and opium is used generally as an article of medicine. The abuse of opium, however, is doubtless increasing among us, and so much so as to create alarm in the minds of many members of the medical profession. In China, however, its consumption exceeds that of any other, and I think I might with truth say, of every other country. The great amount of opium consumed by the Chinese is brought from India. Malwa, Benares and Patna are the chief opium districts in that country. In Malwa, a district still under its native princes, the manufacture of opium is open to all who wish to engage in it; but the English government in India impose heavy transit duties upon the drug while it is passing through their territory to the places of shipment. This duty, previous to 1835, amounted to 175 rupees per chest; in that year it was reduced to 125 rupees, but by a late order it has been raised to 400 rupees per chest. The product of Malwa during the year 1847 was 30,000 chests, which shows a revenue to the English government from transit duties on opium raised in a single district, of 1,200,000 rupees, or 552,000 dollars.

In Benares and Patna the cultivation of the poppy and the manufacture of opium are under a strict government monopoly. This monopoly may be traced as far back as the commencement of British influence in Bengal.

In 1773, the trade, which before was considered a part of the emoluments of certain officers of the government, was assumed by the company. In 1797, the cultivation of the poppy was restricted to Benares and Patna, and discontinued in other parts of the Company's territory. In the same year an *edict* was promulgated against the cultivation of the poppy, and the manufacture or sales of opium except for the benefit of the company, and this has continued in force to this day. Should an individual undertake the cultivation of the poppy without having entered into arrangements with the government to deliver the product at the *fixed* rates, his property would be immediately attached, and the ryot* would be compelled either to destroy his poppies, or give security for the faithful delivery of the product. Nay, according to a late writer, the growing of opium is compulsory on the part of the ryot. Advances are made by the English government through its native servants, and if the ryot refuses the advance, the simple plan is adopted of throwing the rupees into his house. Then the poor native has no remedy. He has received a price for a certain amount of

* Ryot—renter of land—peasant.

opium, and he must apply himself, as best he may, to the fulfilment of a *contract* into which he has been forced.

The method of cultivation of the poppy is after this manner: The ryot having selected a piece of ground which can be easily irrigated, pulverizes the soil by repeated ploughing, and then divides the fields by ditches running in various directions, from his reservoir of water. Irrigation is necessary to the proper growth of the plant. The seed is sown in November. During the growth of the poppy, the field is kept clear of mud, and the soil kept loose and fine about the plants. In February or March, the poppies have arrived at maturity, and the juice is then collected. Cuts are made in the rind of the bulbous heads, and from these the juice exudes and is collected every morning, until all the opium is extracted, which is known from the change which takes place in the color of the seed vessel. The seeds contain no opium. The government annually enters into a *contract* with the native cultivators. It is formed in this way. When the poppies are ripe, and immediately before the period for extracting the juice, an officer of the English government makes the circuit of his particular district, and forms by *guess* a probable estimate of the produce of each field. He then forces the cultivator to enter into an engagement with him to deliver the quantity thus estimated, and as much more as the field will yield, at the government price, which is usually about 80 cents a pound. If the ryot fails to deliver the quantity thus estimated, it is taken for granted that he wishes to defraud the government, and the collector is empowered to prosecute him in a civil court for damages. Hence it sometimes happens that the poor ryot's house and goods are sold to make up for a loss occasioned by the wrong estimate of the officer. We have no means of knowing the amount of land in India under poppy cultivation, but it must be very great. As far back as 1821, when the entire exports of opium from Calcutta amounted to but 1,936 chests, there were, according to undoubted testimony, in the single district of Suran, in the English Province of Patna, 7,000 acres under cultivation, and in eight years after, it had nearly doubled. The opium raised in India last year (1847), is estimated at 60,000 chests, amounting to 8,000,000 pounds of opium. Estimating an acre to produce 25 pounds of opium, which is a liberal estimate, we have 320,000 acres under poppy cultivation in India. As we said before, the poppy requires a rich soil, hence its cultivation has not extended into waste and barren tracts, but into those districts best fitted for agricultural pursuits, from whence other plants, valuable as the supporters of life, have been driven out before it.

After the poppy juice is collected, it is dried partially, then placed in earthen pots and beat up in the oil obtained from the seeds, or in

spittle. It is then formed into balls, and after the outer shell has dried, it is wrapped up in the leaves of the poppy and packed away in strong boxes lined with hides. The Malwa averages about a pecul ($133\frac{1}{3}$ pounds), and the Patna 116 pounds a chest. The opium being now ready for market, is transported to Calcutta, where it is sold at auction at the sales which take place in December and February. Until it is thus sold it belongs to the English government. Its agents, having planted the poppy seed, nurtured the plant through every stage of its existence, matured it, and gathered the opium, the government at these sales claims and reaps the reward of its labors. We quote from a report presented to the British House of Commons in 1832. "The monopoly of opium in Bengal supplies the government with a revenue amounting to £981,293 per annum, and the duty which is thus imposed, amounts to $301\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. on the cost of the article. In the present state of revenue in India, it does not appear advisable to abandon so important a source of revenue—a duty upon opium being a tax which falls principally upon the foreign consumer, and which appears, on the whole, less liable to objection than any other which could be substituted."—"Another source of revenue under this head is the duties collected on the transit of Malwa opium through Bombay, yielding to the government a revenue of £200,000 for the current year."

At the sales at Calcutta the opium is purchased by agents, and thence transported in fast sailing vessels to China. And here it may be well to note the change which in a few years has taken place in the destination of the opium shipped from Calcutta.

In 1796 there were exported from Calcutta to China 1,070 chests; to other countries, 4,103 chests. In the year 1835 the *entire* export of opium from Calcutta, amounting to 10,207 chests, was to China, and this was the case for the four previous years.

To return. Macao was the first centre of the British Indian Opium trade, and doubtless would have long continued so, had it not been for the conduct of the Portuguese government there established. In 1802, Lintin, between Macao and Canton, on the Pearl River, became the opium depôt, and has ever since remained the principal depôt, with the exception of a short time when the opium fleet was removed to Whampoa. It is not, however, the only place where opium in large quantities is stored for sale. Amoy is supplied from ships anchored within the harbor, and in sight of the city. Shanghai is supplied from the opium fleet moored at Woo-sung, twelve miles below, and Fuchan, Ningpo and Chusan have each their opium fleet near at hand. Yet the one at Lintin is much the largest, and supplies all the others. For a part of the time, when the writer was in China, the fleet lay a little way below

Whampoa, and he often visited it from curiosity to learn how the trade in opium was conducted. After the drug has arrived from Calcutta, it is immediately transferred to the receiving ships, which are heavily armed and manned with double crews of Lascars, and then is left for sale or for transhipment up the coast. The scene about the fleet is an animated and curious one. The number of ships and smaller vessels in which the opium is stored, varies from ten to twenty, and to each of these is attached almost every variety of native boat, containing almost every kind and quality of Chinese, from the wealthy opium broker to the poor, miserable, and attenuated victim of the drug. The first is there in his splendid barge, resembling in form and embellishment, the flower-boats of Canton, and in all the glitter and magnificence of his wealth, ready to pay down his tens of thousands for the drug, and the last in his little sampan, which is perhaps all that he is worth in the world, but which he is ready to dispose of in order to obtain the means of gratifying his accursed appetite. There, too, may be seen the "Smug" boat with its hundred oars, and the "fast" boat with sails set, ready to receive on board and carry to Canton or Macao their contraband cargo. A little way off, hugging the shore, is the Mandarin in his fleet boat ready to give chase after the smugglers, not in order to prevent their landing the illicit drug, but to obtain a price (sometimes \$70 a chest), for his connivance at the illegal introduction of it. Alongside the ships are native boats in which the quality of the opium is tested previous to its being bought. The opium is paid for at the house at Canton, which delivers to the purchaser an order for the chest or chests he has selected. This order he takes to the ship and receives his opium. It is then by the Chinese themselves smuggled into the country. It may be asked, since the smuggling is so open, why is it not prevented? In reply, we state that the very persons who are charged with its prevention, are themselves addicted to the habit of smoking, and not only they, but the higher officers to whom they are responsible. They do not fear detection because they are linked together by a common interest. They not only wink at, but encourage the smuggling of opium, because thereby they obtain more than enough to satisfy their appetite for it. This is one of the evils of the traffic of which the good men in China complain. And there are good men there, notwithstanding Christians have so long been engaged in that work of demoralization—the opium trade. One of them describes the introducer of opium, as the "author of the most pressing evils to the country: the consumer of its substance, the destroyer of its people, the corrupter of its officers, and the plotter of its final subjugation."

Opium, previous to being used in the pipe, is prepared with a great deal of care, in order to remove all the impurities, for it is

often adulterated with the fruit of the plantain, poppy leaves, &c. The writer has often witnessed this refining process with a great deal of curiosity and interest. A "celestial" at this work is as careful in all his movements as though his life depended upon every motion of his hand. He sees nothing but the opium, and he thinks of nothing but the delightful effects it is by and by to produce upon the fortunate smoker. A ball of opium being broken, it is placed in small quantities, in a thin vessel of brass containing water. This is put over a brisk fire, and the mixture boiling rapidly, and the impurities removed from the surface, it is there kept until the water has nearly all evaporated. This process is repeated a number of times, until the opium is freed from its impurities. It is now about the consistency of tar, and is put away in small porcelain vessels for use. Sometimes a species of incense is mixed with the opium, but this is not always the case, the flavor of the opium itself being generally preferred by the Chinese.

Opium is seldom eaten by the Chinese, although the poorer classes often swallow that which is left in the pipe after smoking. Shops are to be found in almost every street in the seaport towns, for the accommodation of those addicted to the practice of smoking. As the manner in which opium is smoked is not generally understood, perhaps a description of one of these shops, and the mode in which opium is used in them, will interest the reader. The room is usually about twenty feet square, closely confined at the top and sides. On the walls are hung paintings, intended to represent the different degrees of enjoyment produced by the drug. Couches are placed along the wall, and in front of these are small low tables, on which are placed the apparatus for smoking. The pipe is of red earthen ware, with a flat surface about the size of a dollar, in the centre of which is an aperture capable of receiving a common knitting needle. The stem is of bamboo, and from a foot to two feet in length. The person about to smoke, stretches himself upon a couch, his head supported by a bamboo pillow. The attendant, who in the better class of houses, is usually a female, dips into the vessel containing the opium a small wire, and to this a portion of the drug adheres. This she turns for a moment in the flame of a lamp in order to harden it, and then having formed it into a ball, she places it over the orifice in the bowl of the pipe. She then hands the pipe to the Chinaman while she remains by his side, holding the flame of a lamp to the opium, for this being moist and even wet, requires the constant application of heat in order to throw off smoke. The person inhales the smoke into his lungs, and leisurely exhales it through his nostrils. As but a small portion of opium is used in the pipe, it is soon taken from the mouth to be refilled. This is repeated according to the length of time the person has been

addicted to the habit of smoking. A few days of this fearful luxury, when indulged in to excess, will impart a haggard and pallid look to the features, and a few months or even weeks will change the strong and healthy man into a little better than an idiot skeleton. In the evening the sights presented at these shops are of painful interest. Some are entering half distracted to feed the cravings of the appetite they have been compelled to subdue during the day, others laughing and talking under the effect of a pipe, while the couches around are filled with the different occupants who lie languid, with an idiot smile upon their countenances, too completely under the influence of the drug to regard passing events, and fast merging to the wished-for consummation. The last scene in this tragic play is generally a room in the rear of the building, where lie sheltered those who have passed into the state of bliss the opium smoker madly seeks; fit emblem of the long sleep to which he is blindly hurrying.

Here it may be proper to describe the effect of opium as shown in the different methods of its use.

The Malays chew the crude drug, and this acts upon them as an excitant, producing that frantic act called "running a muck." The Turks also chew it, but after it has been, in a measure, refined. They generally begin with doses of from half a grain to two grains, and gradually increase the quantity till it amounts to two drachms, and sometimes more a day. It is usually taken in pills, but sometimes it is mixed with syrups, or thickened juices, to make it more palatable. It is then taken with a spoon, or dried in small cakes, with the words "Mush Alla" (the word of God) imprinted on them. The effect manifests itself in one or two hours after taking it, and lasts from four to six hours, according to the dose taken. "It is," says Macnish, in his *Anatomy of Drunkenness*, "used extensively among them, but seldom with the view of producing intoxication. Some, indeed, deny that it can do so, strictly speaking. If, by intoxication is meant a state precisely similar to that produced by indulgence in vinous or spirituous liquors, they are undoubtedly right; but drunkenness merits a wider latitude of signification. The ecstasies of opium are much more entrancing than those of wine. There is more poetry in its visions, more mental aggrandizement, more range of imagination. Wine, in common with it, invigorates the animal powers and propensities, but opium in a more peculiar manner strengthens those proper to man, and gives for a period amounting to hours, a higher tone to the intellectual faculties. It inspires the mind with a thousand delightful images, lifts the soul from earth, and casts a halo of poetic thought and feeling over the spirits of the most unimaginative. Under its influence the mind wears no longer that black, passionless aspect, which even in

gifted natures, it is apt to assume. On the contrary, it is clothed with beauty as with a garment, and colors every thought that passes through it with the hues of wonder and romance. Such are the feelings which the luxurious and opulent Musselman seeks to enjoy. To stir up the languid current of his mind, satiated with excess of pleasure, he has recourse to that remedy which his own genial choice produces in greatest perfection. Seated perhaps amid the luxuriance of oriental splendor, with fountains bubbling around, and the citron shading him with its canopy, and casting perfume on all sides, he lets loose the reins of an imagination, conversant from infancy with everything magnificent and gorgeous. The veil which shades the world of fancy is withdrawn, and the scenes lying behind it are exposed to view. He sees palaces and temples in the clouds, or the Paradise of Mahomet with its houris and bowers of amaranth may stand revealed to his excited senses. Everything is steeped in poetic exaggeration. The zephyrs are courted into ærial music, the trees bear golden fruits, the rose blushes with unaccustomed beauty, and breathes a fragrance not of earth. Earth, in a word, is brought nearer to the sky, and becomes a vast Eden of pleasure. Such are the first effects of the eating of the drug; but when it has been continued so long as to bring disease upon the constitution, the pleasurable feelings wear away and are succeeded by those of a very different kind. Instead of disposing the mind to happiness, it now acts upon it like the spell of a demon, and calls up phantoms of horror and disgust. The fancy is still as fanciful as ever, but it is turned in another and a very different direction. The mind is no longer charmed with its former sights of happiness; frightful dreams usurp their place, till at last the person becomes the victim of an almost perpetual misery.

The fasts are, for the Turks, fraught with the most dreadful tortures, as during them they are not allowed by the religion of Mahomet, to take anything during the day. It is said that those who are addicted to the habit of using opium, take before the morning prayers, besides the usual dose, a certain number of other doses, each wrapped up in its particular paper, having previously calculated the time when each envelop shall unfold itself and produce the desired effect."

The operation of opium upon a "celestial," materially changed by the process it undergoes in its preparation for smoking, is to produce a degree of animation which is described as the acmé of human happiness. He feels an unusual activity of spirits, his imagination revels in luxurious images, and he enjoys at the same time a feeling of more than common strength. Soon his strength of body leaves him, and he then falls into a delicious dream. He lives either in the present or in the past, for to him there is no future

beyond the grave. During this delirium, he is possessed of rank, riches and male children, the then dearest wishes of a Chinaman's heart, or his mind, travelling backwards, he is in the company of his revered ancestors, at whose tomb he has so often worshiped, or he sees before him his much loved teacher Confucius, and his words of wisdom fall sweetly upon his eager ear. But when the pleasing intoxication leaves him, laziness and disgust of all kinds of occupation follow, and an imbecility of the senses closely bordering upon insanity.

An habitual opium smoker is immediately recognized by his appearance. A total attenuation of body, a withered yellow countenance, a lame gait, and glossy deeply sunken eyes betray him at the first glance. The digestive organs are in the highest degree disturbed; he eats scarcely anything, his mental and bodily powers are alike destroyed—he is impotent. By degrees the habit becomes more confirmed, his strength continues to decrease, the cravings for the stimulant become even greater than ever, and to produce the desired effect, he resorts more frequently to the pipe. Soon, however, he becomes subject to neuralgic pains to which even opium brings no relief.

The use of this pernicious drug, is justly considered by the Chinese as the worst evil, the greatest calamity which afflicts their land. Its victims are to be found in all ranks—in the imperial palace (a son of the present Emperor is said to have died a few years since from the use of opium) and in the hovel of the poorest peasant. We in this country, judge of misery and wretchedness from the spectacle which the poor drunkard exhibits; but the victimized opium smoker is by far the most wretched and pitiable object I ever beheld. The horrors of delirium tremens—the tortures of the damned, which seize hold of the slave to ardent spirits, are, I had almost said, slight in comparison with those in which writhes the pennyless opium smoker. A Chinaman who had been addicted to the habit, but who, happily for himself, had overcome it, stated once to a gentleman at Canton, that the sensations he experienced, when through poverty he was deprived of the drug, were like those which would be occasioned “by worms crawling in his stomach, and rats gnawing at his elbows.” Horrible as are the effects of intemperance among us, I would rather see them increased four fold than witness the general use of opium among our people. Language would fail to describe the evils it has produced in China. The finest intellects in the land have been destroyed—disease, misery, wretchedness and death, have with opium rioted among the great and good there—family ties have been painfully severed—those who have known affluence and ease brought to beggary in the streets—crime, giant-like has stalked through the land, by

opium fitted for easy conquest, and the rivers and the ditches become the grave of thousands of suicides. Who will one day be accountable for all these evils?

Those who have been addicted to indulgence in ardent spirits know, (and they only know,) how difficult it is to abandon the use of them. But the difficulty which the reforming opium user experiences, is far greater. On this subject let Coleridge speak. "For ten years the anguish of my spirit has been indescribable, the sense of my danger staring, but the consciousness of my guilt, worse, far worse than all. I have prayed with drops of agony upon my brow, trembling not only before the justice of my Maker, but before the mercy of my Redeemer. I have warned young men, mine acquaintances who have spoken of having taken opium, of the direful consequences, by an awful exposition of its tremendous effects upon myself. I was seduced into the habit ignorantly. I had heard of a person afflicted as I was, having been cured by the use of opium. I tried it. It acted like a charm, like a miracle. I recovered the use of my limbs, of my appetite, of my spirits, and this continued for near a fortnight. At length the unusual stimulus subsided—the complaint returned—the supposed remedy was recurred to, but I cannot go through the dread history. Others can bear witness to the truth that the longer I abstained, the higher my spirits were, the keener my enjoyments, until the direful moment arrived when my pulse began to fluctuate, my heart to palpitate, and such a dreadful falling abroad, as it were of my whole frame, such intolerable restlessness and incipient bewilderment, that in the last of my several attempts to abandon the poison, I exclaimed in agony, 'I am too poor to hazard this!' You bid me rouse myself. Go bid a man paralytic in both his arms to rub them briskly together, and that will cure him. 'Alas!' he would reply, 'that I cannot move my arms is my complaint and my misery.'"

If such was the difficulty which Coleridge, a highly enlightened and educated man, and one too, sensible of his responsibilities to his Maker, experienced, we can easily imagine it to be almost impossible for the poor, benighted pagan, with no moral sense to guide him, to cut loose from this enticing, yet pernicious habit.

G. H. V.

ETHNOLOGICAL SKETCH OF THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.*

§ 1. The branch of the human race found on this continent, at the close of the 15th century, was at once pronounced Asiatic, or of Asiatic origin, and called "Indios," and Indian by the discoverer. Columbus returned to announce the fact that he had found a remote and new part of India. He had stumbled, in fact, on America in seeking a more direct course to the seats of oriental commerce. When he beheld the physical traits of the race—their red complexion, dark hair and eyes, and striking physiological traits, he did not hesitate to connect them with the orientals. From that day to this, there have been volumes poured out on the subject, without identifying the particular country from which they came—far less the era or eras of their migration.

§ 2. The tribes that are found in the present area of the United States, existed in the condition of mere hunters, who obtained their chief means of subsistence from the forest, planting a little corn at their summer villages, but passing a large part of the year in roving from place to place, in quest of game or fish. They appeared to have overrun the country in its vast magnificence and abundance, in a wild and reckless spirit of war and plunder—*might* always making *right*, and seeking the gratification of power wherever there were the greatest attractions. The inrush of the population appeared to have been from the West and South, striking the great Apalachian range, and wending their way, century by century, along the Atlantic coast, quite to the Bay of Funda and the Gulf of the St. Lawrence, where tribes from other centres of sally were met.

§ 3. In this expansion, they crossed their own tracks, in many cases, as time advanced, and the fortune of war and the chase dictated. There appear to have been great wars, in olden time, in these wild migratory inroads, in which the first intrusive race were set upon and driven off, or scattered by other hordes, who came seeking game and new countries at later periods. For there are evidences of such great wars, in many remains of earth-works and embankments, which are so situated with respect to streams and eminences, as to have had no other probable object but defence—

* This article was communicated to the Register by a gentleman, the most distinguished in our country for his acquaintance with the history and character of the North American Indians. That he is now performing a valuable service to the public will be seen by the questions appended to this article, which are given as specimens of the inquiries, amounting to several hundred, prepared by him, by order of the government, for the purpose of procuring materials illustrative of the history, condition, and prospects of the Indian tribes of the United States.

and that defence, such only as was required in hand to hand conflicts—long, long before gunpowder was invented, or the bow and javelin had resigned their once proud supremacy as the chief implements of war.

§ 4. Other remains of the domestic institutions of the older tribes were found in the forests, where our later and existing race only hunted deer. The chief of these consisted of mounds, barrows, and graveyards, with some remains of incipient arts. These comprise a field of antiquarian research, from which some gleam of light may yet be cast on the era of *other* and perhaps *greater* races, who erected them. So far as there is any light thrown on the earlier epoch, the first invading aborigines came with oriental ideas, habits, and religious opinions, as well as in their physical lineaments. They were evidently free-worshippers, and took the sun, moon, and stars for gods, and demi-gods, under whose forms they beheld the original and creative Manito, or Great Spirit, and lesser spirits. OWAYNEO and WACONDAH were other names, by other generic classes of the tribes, for the same Being, who was, however, recognized by all in early epochs, in that great Indian symbol of divinity, the SUN.

§ 5. We are speaking of the Indians of the present boundaries of the United States, wherein we had, at the opening of the 16th century, about 100 distinct tribes, nations, or leading fraternities of clans. Their languages were very much multiplied, notwithstanding the very marked agreement of the people in general manners, customs, and traits. It is only of late that anything like *research* into their primary divisions has been applied by means of the curious key of language, to determine whether there ever were so many distinct languages, or whether they were mere dialects of a lesser number of mother tongues. And already it is perceived that there were but few generic languages at the outset of their history—and that there is a process of change, constantly but slowly going on, in the languages, which, in long periods, would quite alter the present languages, and render them unintelligible. These mutations arise from changes of accent, permutation of the vowel sounds, new modes of enunciation, and other traits of speech, which soon undermine the fabric of the vocabulary. But even where this process of change has gone the farthest, we still find direct proofs of their ancient affiliation, particularly in their grammar, or the plan of utterance.

§ 6. The principal group of Indian tribes, in the more northerly latitudes, is the Algonquin. This group was very extensive at the era of the discovery, and in its utmost ramifications and extended subdivisions, spread along the Atlantic coast from Virginia to the extreme bounds of New England. Following up the valley of the

St. Lawrence, it reached the upper lakes and the upper Mississippi, extending thence north to the dividing ground between the farthest waters of the great Winnipeg and the Athabasca lake. Pursuing down the east bank of the Mississippi, it extended as far south as the junction of the Ohio. The leading tribes of this group, who figure prominently in our history, are the Lenni Lenapeas or Delawares, Nanticokes, Susquehannocks, Munsees, Mohegans, Shawnees, Mississagies, Chippewas, Ottowas, Pottawatomies, Menomonees, Miamis, Kickapoos, Foxes, Sacs, Peorias and Kaskaskias, and Illinois, generally.

§ 7. North of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes existed the Algonquins proper, or Nipercinians, the Maskigoes, and other interior and swamp tribes, extending to, and bordering on the Esquimaux race of Hudson's Bay, and the Kenistenoës or Crus, north of Lake Superior. In central New England, it had its remote affiliated tribes in the Mohegans of Connecticut, the Narragansetts of Rhode Island, the Pokanokets, Natics, and other Massachusetts tribes of that province; the Pinnacooks and other tribes of New Hampshire, and the Norridgwocks, &c., of Maine.

§ 8. Into this great Algonquin circle, the Iroquois group of Western New York, the Wyandots of Ohio and Michigan, and the Winnebagoes of Wisconsin, appear as intrusive and non-affiliated masses. Of these, the Iroquois occupied by far the most *eminent* position by means of their celebrated confederacy. This type of men consisted originally of the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas. To these the Tuscaroras were afterwards reunited from North Carolina, and the Senecas appear to have been split in some ancient feud, casting out the Wyandots. To this family also belonged the ancient Eries, the Kahkwes, and the so called "Neuter Nation." Vermont, the Iricosia of the Dutch, west of the mountains, was part of the ancient hunting ground of the Iroquois, and Lake Champlain was emphatically the Lake of the Iroquois.

§ 9. The Iroquois were not originally, it appears, men of courage and promise superior to the *other* tribes; but they became brave and strong through defeats, counsel and combination. The Algonquins appear to have first, under Piskaret, taught them how to fight. The latter called them windy-tongues and Nadowas; they retorted, calling the Algonquins bark-eaters, *i. e.* Adirondaks. They occupied a favorable position for inroads on the surrounding nations,—they exercised themselves much in martial enterprises, and formed a republic or confederation for the general purposes of peace and war, which rendered them powerful, and they soon made their very name a tower of strength. They first crushed their great adversaries, the Algonquins, in a great battle at Wore River, in the St. Lawrence

valley, and afterwards followed the race far and wide, under all its names—even to the Illinois and the banks of Lake Superior.

§ 10. The southwestern extremity of the Union, including the Apalachian range, was inhabited by the Cherokees, Creeks, or Musagees, Choctaws and Chickasaws, Natchez, Utchees, Alabamas, and various minor tribes, some of whom dwindled away without leaving a vocabulary to other times, by which to compare them. The Catabas and their congeners, the Yamassies, &c., occupied the area of South Carolina.

§ 11. In North Carolina we perceive an intrusion of the Iroquois element in the Tuscaroras, who were still there in 1712. When this State was settled, there were fourteen distinct small tribes, of whom the Tuscaroras were far the most populous, and next to them the Waccous, Mehrrins, Pamlicoës, and Nottoways, &c. About 1600 fighting men were estimated to be in the State in 1608—making, by the usual rates, that is to say five souls to one warrior, some 6000 souls.

§ 12. It was inevitable almost, when we consider the laws of climate and population, that the southern temperate latitudes should have the heaviest Indian population, and it was here, also, that there were found the greatest mixtures of fragments of language and tribes. A hunter and nomadic population, revelled in the delights and abundance of its wild climate and fertile soil, where the valleys yielded their rich fields of corn, and the streams and forests supplied them abundantly with game and fish. There appears to have been in these tribes the elements of two, if not THREE, generic groups of languages. But the actual state of our vocabulary and grammar will not yet permit a final classification. It is a quarter of the Union which offers a rich and inviting field of ethnological research.

§ 13. West of the Mississippi, the Dacota language extended widely, and the tribes speaking the dialects of this tongue still maintain essentially their ancient positions. Beginning at the North, at a point west of the sources of the Mississippi, were the Assinaboines, next their kinsmen the Sioux of the river and the plains, extending in their multiplied tribes to the Missouri, and embracing the roving Arab-like races of the Pawnees, Omahas, Kansas, &c. &c.—and stretching off by their affiliated tribes, across the Arkansas to the Red River, and the plains of Texas. This is also a rich and wide field of linguistic and statistical inquiry and research, which affords ample records to the observer.

§ 14. Of the tribes of Oregon, the last explored part of the republic, we have just begun to collect the geography and statistics, and its native population, strength, position and character will assume exactitude as we proceed in our investigation. The same may be

said of the Camanches, and other predatory tribes of Texas, who rove over its vast plains and carry their war flag through its unexplored mountain defiles. And when the inquiry is pursued in the direction which our inquisitive population is likely to take, into the table lands and valleys of New Mexico and California, there will, most probably, be found cogent reasons for the opinion thrown out in the outset of this article, that our aboriginal population had a southwestern starting point.

§ 15. We regard the *Zea* maize as the basis of the semi-civilization which marked the most advanced tribes of the South. It is a plant of the tropics. The labor required to cultivate it is less than that of any of the cereals. It will rise to perfection in hot climates and rich soils even without the periodical labors of the hoe. Wherever our northern tribes migrated, they appear to have carried this grain. And were every other trace of their migration obliterated, still their track would appear by the diffusion and extension of their favorite grain—the emphatic *Mondamen* or Spirit's grain of the Algonquin nation.

§ 16. From the latest and most reliable accounts, there is a fraction under 37,000 Indians of various nations and bands in the territory of New Mexico alone. Of these, 6000 consist of various bands of the wandering Apaches and Jicarillas, 4400 of the Yulas, and 12,000 of the Camanches. It is in the province of New Mexico that there are 7000 of the agricultural or sheep-pasturing tribe of the Navihoes; and 2450 of the curious and still more advanced nation of the Moques, supposed to be vestiges of Aztecs, who are represented to possess light complexions, and to exercise many of the useful arts. The latter are both thought to be the most antique tribe in their origin and arts, dating back to the epoch of the migration of the Aztecs to the Mexican valley.

§ 17. To know the exact numbers, names, and actual condition of the various tribes inhabiting the United States; their means of subsistence, the rate of their increase or decrease, as denoted by full statistics of their vitality, and the different capacities and grades of civilization or barbarism which they exhibit, could not but essentially aid legislators and philanthropists in applying plans for their ultimate reclamation. Connected with such inquiries, which, to be valuable, must be authentic, there are questions of history, geography and general ethnology of high interest.

§ 18. Above all, there is wanted a census, full and complete in its details, and embracing all objects essential to determine the statistics of the industry, education, initial arts, and temperance of each tribe; the annual *percapita* of the cash annuities from government, their school funds, &c. &c. An effort of this kind is now in the process of being made by the general government, through the au-

thority of the appropriate department. The inquiry has been put on an enlarged principle, which promises to supply a desideratum in our knowledge of this race. In this inquiry, the history, geography, antiquities, religion, government, mythology, manners and customs, and language of each tribe, are likewise specifically sought. Printed tables for a census have been prepared, and issued to the several Indian agents in the West, to be filled up at their convenience. And a comprehensive list of historical and general inquiries has been drawn up and addressed to persons who are judged capable of giving replies, in various quarters of the Union. As some indication of the scope of the general inquiries, the following quotations from the pamphlet are made, namely—

“*The result thus far.*—How far has knowledge, art and commerce, and the general progress of civilization, affected the improvement of the Indian tribes, and changed or modified their original manners, customs and opinions? State the general impressions which have been made, and observe what modes of treatment and policy have done best, and on what points the Indian character, in its advanced, or semi-civilized phases, usually breaks down?

“*Health of the Tribe.*—How does the agricultural state, in the cases where it has been embraced, affect the laws of reproduction, and what change, if any, has been noticed in the character of the diseases of the removed tribes? Is their general health better, and how, if to any extent, has it been influenced by full and regular means of subsistence? Are fevers, or affections of the liver as frequent on the elevated plains west of the Mississippi, as they were in their former positions? How does the change of climate affect pulmonary complaints?

“*Progress of Christianity.*—What is the present state of the tribe in this respect? What progress has been made in delivering it from the dominion and influence of the native priests, prophets and jugglers? How long has it enjoyed the advantages of Christian teachers? What means were first employed to gain a hearing for the doctrines? Were they found efficacious, or were they varied, and what has been the most successful mode employed?

“*Temperance.*—Are the principles of temperance in the use of ardent spirits on the increase or decrease? What are the prominent causes operating on the minds of persons yet addicted to the use of them, and what are the best means, at this time, of further discouraging the use of such drinks, and of effecting their entire exclusion from the tribe?

“*The Cause of Education.*—What are the prominent facts in relation to this important means of reclaiming and exalting the tribe? What means have been found most effective in the education of their children and youth? Have females duly participated in these means, and has any part of such means been applied to such branches as are essential to qualify them for the duties of mothers and housewives? Are the ancient prejudices of parents on the subject of education on the wane, and what is the relative proportion of the young population, who, in the last period of ten years, have received the elements of an English education?

“*Proofs from Tradition.*—Who were the earliest inhabitants of America? What is the light of tradition on this subject? Were the ancestors of the present red race the Aborigines? What evidences exist, if any, of the occupancy of the country by man, prior to the arrival of the Indian or Aonic race?

“*Proofs from Geology.*—Are there any evidences of the country's having been occupied by man, prior to the deposition of the tertiary or diluvial strata? Are

such evidences confined wholly to the unconsolidated deposits; and, if so, to what deposits, and of what probable eras?

“*Proofs from antique Bones.*—How deep, in any beds of deposits, local or general, of the upper geological formations, are the bones of extinct or existing kinds of quadrupeds, or other animal remains to be found? Have the fortunes of the red race, or any prior race, been connected with, or are they illustrated by, the extinction of the mastodon or other large animals, whose bones are now found in a fossil state?

“*What connection do the United States Indians hold, ethnologically, to those of Mexico.*—Are there any proofs of affiliation in the grammars and vocabularies? What lights are afforded by history or tradition? Was the valley of the Mississippi probably settled at the period of the establishment of the Aztec empire, under the predecessors of the Montezumas?

“*Remnants of the New England Tribes.*—What is the number and condition of the Penobscots? Are the Abenakis, who fled from Norridgwock, still under the care of their original teachers, and what progress have they made in industry and the civil arts, since their withdrawal to Canada? What vestiges of the Massachusetts group of tribes remain within the boundaries of that state, inclusive of Martha’s Vineyard and other islands? What are the present number and condition of the Narragansetts of Rhode Island, and of the Mohegans of Connecticut?

“*Native Tribes of New York.*—What is the present number, location and state of industry of the Iroquois? Was their confederacy of ancient or modern date; and what were the principles of their government? Are there any of the stock of the ancient Mohegans, Munsees, or other tribes of the Hudson valley, or of Long Island, and the adjacent coasts, left within the boundaries of the state? What is the meaning of the word Manhattan? Did Hudson ever land on this island?

“*What are the character and purport of the ancient inscription found on the Dighton Rock, on the borders of Massachusetts and Rhode Island?*—Is this description in the Runic or any other ancient character, in part or altogether; or is it *sui generis* with the devices and picture-writing of the North American Indians?

“*Is the inscription found on opening the Grave Creek mound, in Western Virginia in 1839, alphabetic or hieroglyphic?*—If alphabetic, in what ancient character was it executed, what is the purport thereof, and what bearings has it on the early epoch of American history? Furnish an authentic copy of the inscription, with its interpretation, if known?

“*Were the evidences of ancient civilization confined to tribes located around the Gulf of Mexico?*—Do the articles and fragments of ancient earthenware, found at Appalachicola bay, and at other places in Florida, denote a degree of skill in that art superior to that known to have been possessed by the northern tribes, on the planting of the colonies?

“*What are the Grammatical Principles of the Language?*—Do these principles correspond with the ancient or modern class of languages? If with the ancient, with what family, and in what particulars do resemblances or affinities exist? Are the words simple or compound? If compound, or compound derivatives are used, what are the rules by which these compounds are effected?

[We have only room for one further extract from these interesting inquiries: The last question, No. 348, with the closing remarks.]

“*Are you acquainted with any material errors in the general or popular accounts of our Indian Tribes?*—If so, please state them.”

In submitting the preceding questions on the several subjects named, it is not designed to limit the inquiry to these particular forms. Called upon by the terms of the act to embody materials illustrative of the history of the tribes, as well as their statistics, the Department seeks to avail itself of the knowledge

and experience of persons in various parts of the country, to contribute their aid. The inquiry is here placed on a broad basis, that it may embrace the general grounds from which we are to judge the history and condition, past and present, of the people whose benefit is sought by future legislative provision; and by the adoption of a course of public policy which shall best subserve their highest interests. It is not supposed that every person who sits down to answer these queries, whether he be in a public or private capacity, will take an equal interest in them, or feel equally prepared with facts and observations, to reply to all. By denoting the general line of inquiry, and running out the leading questions a little into detail, enough has been done, it is conceived, to serve as hints to the respondents, and little more is, indeed, intended. Facts are sought, and nothing but facts. It is essential that, where the respondent is unknown to the Department, some reference should be given. Many of the inquiries are of customs and opinions, which are believed to be common to most of the tribes, but the excepted cases are important to be noted, and in these cases simple affirmative or negative replies will often be sufficient. Where new facts are stated, or new opinions expressed, which are founded on personal knowledge or study, in any branch of the subject, it is of moment that they should be well vouched. Hitherto, inquiries of this kind have been chiefly in the hands of casual visitors or travelers in the Indian country, often of foreigners, who have necessarily taken hasty and superficial glances at their mere external customs and ceremonies. Of the more abstruse view of Indian character—of their religion, tribal government and clanships, their thoughts on death and immortality, their mental capacities and the leading causes of their action, very little has been observed, which possess the character of research, while there are essential points of discrepancy. But, whatever degree of imperfection has characterized these desultory and casual efforts in describing the Indians, and however much cause we may have had to dissent from some of the conclusions and criticisms respecting our treatment of, and policy respecting them, drawn by tourists from abroad, or by over-zealous but mistaken observers at home, it is essential to the just discharge of the duty imposed on the Department, in the present effort, that exactitude should stamp its labors. I will therefore thank you to inquire carefully, and be sure that no deception has been practiced. In all questions where the interests of the tribes clash with those of the persons whom you may consult, there is much caution required. There is great prejudice of opinion, and preconception of the Indian character generally. It is due to them that they should be judged candidly, and from an examination of opinions and statements from the best sources. A few examples of the misconception referred to, will be mentioned. It was stated a few years ago, by one of the most popular writers of England, that the United States had borrowed money in 1837 from a wealthy Indian chief, to pay its annuities to his tribe! and its policy has been deeply censured in high quarters, in the foreign literary world, on the basis of books of travels, whose least severe censure it is believed to be, to declare, that their author's have relied, in some instances, on hastily gathered, or ill-digested or unworthy materials. One writer represents the Mandans as practising the act of self-torture of Hindoo devotees, by hanging

from hooks, or cords fastened into the nerves, so as to sustain the whole weight of the body. This, together with the general account of the Mandan religion, by the same author, is contrary to the facts, as understood here. The same writer will also have this tribe to be descendants of the Welch, who are supposed to have reached this continent in the twelfth century. Yet the British Druids imposed no such self-torturing rites. Much inexactitude and uncertainty exist with respect to the class of evidences to be drawn from the antiquities of the area of country now composing the United States. To illustrate this topic, in the Indian history, exact plans and descriptions are required. The state of their traditions is ill explored. Their general history and languages constitute a wide field for remark. The whole subject is one of interest, and in giving the inquiry official sanction, it is designed to collect and prepare a body of facts, which shall present the customs, characters and institutions of the tribes in the simple garb of truth."

THE ARTS.

Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture give lustre to empires, commemorate events, immortalize names, verify history, and establish chronology.

The arts have ever claimed the attention of the enlightened in all ages, not merely from their practical importance as connected with the imperious demands of man and of nations in their prosperous career of civilization; but as constant sources of the highest intellectual enjoyments. In such honorable estimation were they held by the Greeks, that their culture constituted an essential portion of education in all their eminent seminaries of learning. Socrates declared that artists were the only wise men, for they were content by being really so, without the affectation of appearing as such. Plato practised drawing while prosecuting his extensive investigations in morals and science. Æsopus assiduously frequented the places where painters, sculptors, and architects were employed in their several arts. Diogenes gave lessons in philosophy to Marcus Aurelius, who acknowledged that he learned from that painter how to distinguish the true from the false, and not to adopt chimeras for realities. Alexander did not think that it derogated from his dignity as a sovereign, or abased his laurels as a conqueror, to frequent the studio of Apelles, while that distinguished artist was employed in executing some of his most admirable paintings.

While the palm of excellence has been universally conceded to the ancients in sculpture and architecture, doubts have been generally entertained whether they had reached as high a state of perfection in painting. It must, however, be considered that we have ample means of deciding upon their proficiency, in the first named arts, by an inspection of those magnificent temples and beautiful

statues, in marble and bronze, which have braved the deluge of time and the devastations of conquest; but not a single painting of the great masters of Greece has descended to us to verify the propriety of the exalted estimation in which they were regarded, for their remarkable proficiency, by cotemporaneous nations and those of succeeding ages. We are, therefore, compelled to form an opinion of the merits of their productions from the descriptions which are contained in the works of those illustrious classical authors, who had examined them in the places of their original dedication, or after their removal to other countries. Among those authors Pausanias, Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, and Pliny, must be considered as not only well qualified to appreciate the design and execution of the numerous most celebrated specimens which they had seen; but as having faithfully expressed the concurrent decision of the most enlightened men, both of their own and antecedent ages, as to their intrinsic merit. To doubt the correctness of their statements, on that subject, would be as irrational as unjust, for it would involve the improbable and gratuitous assumption, that they were not competent to determine whether the paintings of Apelles, Zeuxis, and Protogenes were really entitled to the unqualified commendations which had been bestowed upon them. As well might it be alleged that they were incapable of appreciating the characters of the distinguished philosophers, statesmen, and heroes with whom they had associated, or the superb works of the sculptor and architect which they had examined, and consequently their opinions were valueless. But as we have the means of testing the correctness of their descriptions and opinions as to the latter arts, it is only an extension of rightful deference to conclude that their decisions were equally consonant to truth, in the other, which was so generally united with them, in their most elaborated forms.

Although modern galleries of paintings are not enriched by any of the productions of the renowned schools of Corinth, Sicyon, Athens, or Rhodes, still the wonderful revelations of disinhumed Pompeii are sufficient to establish the claim of the ancients to as high a distinction in painting as has been conceded to them in all the other branches of the useful and ornamental arts; for it has been ascertained, by the discovery of that memorable city, that the walls of even private houses were ornamented with admirable paintings, many of which appear as fresh and brilliant in color as when first executed, although they had been overwhelmed with the ashes and scoria of Vesuvius for more than seventeen hundred years. There is one representing the surrender of Briseis, by Achilles, to Agamemnon, pre-eminently beautiful, and is not surpassed in conception and execution by any painting since the revival of the arts.

The inquiry has often been made, as to what were the efficient

causes of the remarkable developments of architecture, sculpture, and painting in ancient nations, and although many, which are as various as inconclusive, have been assigned, may not religion be justly considered as the primeval and chief—a belief in the existence of an Omnipotent Sovereign of the Universe, and a reverential disposition to do him honor. It mattered not by what distinctive name he was recognized, whether “Jehovah, Jove, or Lord,” for there never has existed a people in any portion of the globe who have not evinced, in some manner, their credence in a God; while the civilized have reared altars to his worship, or to the divinities, in which imagination had impersonated his attributes. The wealth of mighty empires was magnificently expended for those sacred purposes. Powerful monarchs, victorious commanders, and affluent nobles, emulously united with the humblest subjects in the erection of appropriate edifices for the solemn administration of the rituals of their creeds. The remains of the magnificent temples of Egypt, Jerusalem, Balbec, Nineveh, Greece, Carthage, Palmyra, and Rome, are eternal monuments of a profound adoration for the Almighty Creator and Ruler of Heaven and Earth.

In the construction of those holy temples, the genius, talent and skill of the ablest architects, sculptors, and painters were called into vigorous action, as distinction, honor, and wealth were the exciting rewards that were offered for an assiduous and successful cultivation of their several arts. The King of Judea sent to Tyre for ingenious workmen, in gold, silver, brass and marble, to aid in the construction and embellishment of the sumptuous “House of the Lord,” which he reared on Mount Moriah; and the Egyptian, Grecian, and Roman temples were not considered complete until they were decorated with basso-relievos, statues, and paintings.

After the fall of the Roman empire, the world was involved in such a long night of ignorance and degradation, it was not until the ninth century that the aurora of civilization again appeared in the moral horizon. With the revival of industry, letters, and science, the arts were again called into existence; but while painting and sculpture made great advances towards that perfection which had been attained in Athens, architecture lingered far in their rear. For more than eight hundred years after the European devastations of Alaric, that highly important science and art was in a degraded state; but, near the close of the fourteenth century, efforts were made for its restoration by the Florentine nobles, and it continued to flourish under the guidance of Brunelleschi, Vignola, and Serlio, until the sixteenth century, when Palladio of Vicenzi published his celebrated work; but as his taste and principles were unfortunately founded on Vitruvius and Roman examples, instead of the more perfect system and models of the Greeks, architecture, instead

of being accelerated, was retarded in its advancement by that author and artist; for his incongruous theory and practical illustrations gradually extended over Europe, and ultimately became the approved standard of excellence.

Inigo Jones, who was patronized by James I. and Charles I., having been educated in Venice, introduced the Palladian style into Great Britain, and it was continued by Sir Christopher Wren, Vanburgh, Gibbs, and Kent, the Earl of Burlington, Chambers and Wyart, to the reign of George III.

The remains of the superb structures of Greece were scarcely known until Stuart's splendid work on the antiquities of Athens was published; nor had any accurate delineations of the pure Doric, Ionic, or Corinthian orders of architecture been seen. All preceding authors had derived their information from the ruins of the ancient edifices of Rome; and although some of them may have been designed and reared by Grecian architects, it was after the subjugation of their country, and at a period, too, when it had degenerated from its pristine eminence. Oppressed and impoverished by the Macedonian conquest, the arts had gradually languished and were expiring when it was finally reduced to a Roman province.

The capture of Corinth, by Lucius Mummius, was the portentous advent of the destruction of the independence of Greece, and the first specimens of the arts, which were received in the "eternal city," were the spoils of that splendid emporium of commerce, which was celebrated for its precious sculptures in bronze and marble, its beautiful paintings, and majestic temples. The infamous Verres plundered Agrigentum, Scio, and Samos; Sylla sacked Athens, and carried off the paintings, statues, and other decorations of the public edifices; and, in rapid succession, all the states of Greece, the islands of the Archipelago, Asia Minor and Egypt, where the arts had taken refuge under the Ptolemies, as well as Carthage, Palestine and Palmyra, were conquered and pillaged by the Roman legions. Thus enriched by the treasures and innumerable specimens of the arts, as the boasted spoils of victory, great efforts were made to embellish the imperial capital with temples, forums, theatres, baths, triumphal arches and palaces; and although vast funds were appropriated to those objects, still painting, sculpture and architecture never reached that grand elevation which they had attained in Attica during the brilliant age of Pericles.

After the nations of western Europe emerged from that barbarous position to which they had been reduced for centuries, they relied upon Italy for instruction in letters, science and the arts; for the ancient states of Greece and their Asiatic colonies, with Egypt and Constantinople, were the humbled dependencies of the Saracenic or Ottoman empire; and it was not only difficult but danger-

ous to explore those interesting regions for any purpose; while the few travelers, who occasionally visited them, were more interested in other objects of inquiry than the arts. At last, Stewart and Revely, who had passed several years at Rome in prosecuting their studies in painting, determined to visit Greece for the express purpose of measuring and delineating the remains of the ancient temples in Athens and other portions of that interesting country. After devoting five years to laborious researches, and an unremitting application of their intelligence and skill in the faithful accomplishment of these objects, they returned to London in 1755, with the valuable information which they had collected, and which was ultimately published in four large folio volumes; but the first did not appear until 1762, and Stewart having suddenly died soon after, the second was prepared for the press under the direction of Newton, and was not printed till 1788. The third was published by Revely in 1794, but the fourth, which was compiled from Stewart's manuscripts and port-folio of drawings by Woods, was not completed before 1816.

The deep interest which was excited by those important additions to the library of the architect, was emphatically evinced by the enthusiastic encomiums which were bestowed upon the admirable examples of Grecian art which had thus been revealed, and the anxious solicitude which was universally expressed for more extensive researches, as well as the enlightened zeal with which they were undertaken by the Dilettanti Society of London, in Ionia and Attica, and by Wilkins, in Magna Grecia. The results of their several explorations were successively published, with an accuracy of detail and magnificence of style, as honorable to the talents and enterprise of the authors, as the acquisitions were important to the science and art which they so materially subserved.

Simultaneously with the publication of the early volumes of Stewart's *Antiquities*, Winckelmann's *History of Arts among the ancients* appeared, and subsequently his *Letters on the Discoveries made in Herculaneum*, *Remarks on the Architecture of the Ancients*, and the *Monuments of Antiquity*. This eminently learned German author early discovered an ardent passion for the arts, and having acquired a high reputation by his "*Reflections on the Imitation of the Greeks in Painting and Sculpture*," he was induced to leave the Court of Augustus, King of Poland, and visit Rome for the purpose of prosecuting his favorite studies with greater advantage in that city of ancient ruins and modern creations, which is both a venerable sarcophagus to commemorate the hallowed site where letters, science and the arts were buried with imperial obsequies, and the triumphal monument of their glorious resurrection.

Having been favorably received and liberally patronized by the

ecclesiastical and temporal sovereign, Winckelmann was appointed keeper of the pontifical cabinet of antiquities, and an assistant in the library of the Vatican, and devoted the remainder of his life in the composition of the celebrated works which have been named.

These various invaluable publications, with "La Ruins de Pæstum par de la Gardt," and the precious collection of the Elgin Marbles, caused more exact investigations, aroused more enlarged conceptions, and diffused a more refined and exalted taste in relation to all the arts, and inculcated a far more thorough knowledge of those scientific principles on which the architecture of Greece was founded, and the manner in which they were so successfully applied to produce those transcendent realizations of the beautiful and grand, in the public edifices of that nation, when at the culminating point of its glory.

The primitive Grecian order was the Doric, and among the earliest examples of sacred architecture was the superb temple of Jupiter at Olympia, which was erected six hundred and thirty years before the Christian era. At Corinth are the ruins of a Doric temple of very remote antiquity, and the celebrated temples of Apollo at Delphos and in Arcadia were of that order; but examples of which, (plans, elevations, admeasurements and descriptions of them have been made,) are those of Attica, Ægina, Agrigentum, Pæstum, and Delos. The most perfect of the whole, and the most magnificent edifice ever reared by man, is the Parthenon in the Acropolis of Athens.

Grecian colonies having been established upon the coast of Corea, in Asia Minor, the new states there formed assumed the name of Ionia; and in the construction of the temple of Diana at Ephesus, a new order, which they claimed to have invented, received the appellation of Ionic; but it is more probable that its origin was coeval with that which prevailed in European Greece; and though chiefly confined to the Asiatic states, it ultimately became more generally attractive than the serene beauties of the Doric.

The Corinthian order is of a more recent invention, and has been attributed to the sculptor Callimachus, who lived towards the close of the Peloponnesian war; but its Egyptian origin, like that of the other two orders, is more probable, as the flowers of the lotus, which generally formed the decoration of the massive columns in the immense edifices of that country in some of its multifarious varieties, bears a near resemblance to the ornaments of the Corinthian capital.

The beauty of the Grecian style of architecture arises from the symmetrical proportions of the whole edifice, and the chaste selection and tasteful disposition of the ornaments. The horizontal line, extent of unbroken surface, uniform contour, right angles, and elliptical and parabolical curves in the mouldings, are its characteristics.

A quadrilateral form, adorned with exterior columns, surmounted with capitals of various degrees of elegance, and basso-relievos on the frieze, metopes and the tympanums of the pediments, constitute the elements of the most splendid structures; and although generally similar in plan, distinct varieties are perceivable; but each peculiar and consistent in all its respective proportions.

The temples of all the Grecian orders were elevated upon a stylobate of three gradations, which formed an appropriate base to the whole structure. The height and width of the three portions of this peculiar element were in harmonious proportion with the magnitude of the temple, and their aggregate elevation was usually equal to one diameter of the columns. This important feature has inexplicably been disregarded in all the modern imitations of those orders, and steps for ascent, improperly substituted, when they should have been confined to the mere purpose of approaching the doorways, and limited in their length to that of the space between the two central columns of the portico. By this unwarrantable deviation, the huge columns and ponderous entablature seem to rest on a fragile foundation as compared with that formed by the massive blocks of the stylobate.

There were no windows, or other openings for the admission of light, in the ancient temples, except the door-ways,* and hence it has been concluded that the introduction of artificial light was considered as more consonant to the spirit of their theology, where so much depended upon mystery, pageantry and astonishment. In the celebration of the long-hallowed ceremonials at the temple of Diana in Eleusis, the sudden transition from outer darkness to the dazzling effulgence of the illuminated interior of the temple, has been described by Pausanias, as having produced the strongest sensation of awe and amazement upon the initiated.

In most of the temples, fires on the altars, or suspended lamps, were kept constantly burning. The wonderful golden lamp which was invented by Callimachus, burned perpetually before the statue of the goddess, in the temple of Minerva Polias at Athens, and fine candlesticks of pure gold were placed on each side of the sanctuary in Solomon's temple.

“The character of massive and imposing grandeur in the Doric; of adorned, but simple majesty, in the Ionic; and of festive sumptuousness in the Corinthian, is preserved throughout the minutest details, in all the examples of antiquity.”

The natural tendency of the Romans was for the wonderful, the splendid, the extravagant, in the configuration and embellishment of their public edifices; hence, they are remarkable for magnitude,

* It is believed, however, by some authors, that in the peripteral hypæthral temples, the roof did not extend over the *naos*, and thus light was admitted into the *cella*.

novelty, complication of figure and redundancy of ornaments. But they are entitled to the credit of being the first to construct amphitheatres, aqueducts, arched bridges, baths, triumphal arches, and lofty monumental columns, several of which are pre-eminently useful, and all are indispensable in every modern nation, that is emulous of participating in the benefits which they afford, or of evincing their advancement in civilization and refinement, as well as a patriotic gratitude for the victorious achievements of their military commanders, and a magnanimous recognition of the meritorious services of other distinguished benefactors of their country.

The imperial city, however, is not the proper place to study architecture, as no perfect specimens of the Grecian orders are there to be found: yet it was from thence and from Vitruvius,—the great architect of the Augustine age, that the corrupt system of modern times was derived.

The architecture of Rome was extended, with the march of her victorious armies throughout western Europe, to the isles of Great Britain; but, after the decadence of the empire, it was generally superseded by several new styles, and, among them, the Gothic is decidedly the most commendable, for sacred structures. Its origin is involved in obscurity, and although great learning, ingenuity, and industry, have been bestowed upon that subject, by numerous celebrated authors, it has not yet been conclusively established, whether it was derived from the Saracens, Goths, Saxons, or Normans, or is the result of a combination of the elements which were presented in the peculiar architecture of each of those nations. The characteristics of this style are a cruciform plan, abruptly broken outlines, lofty spires, tall, slim clustered columns, groined arches, large pointed windows, and an exuberance of infinitely diversified ornaments, whose united effect in vast cathedrals is eminently grand; but the system is inapplicable to any other purpose.

Egyptian architecture is remarkable for massiveness of materials, solidity of construction, boldness of form, and colossal size. The grandest relics are the pyramids, near the site of ancient Memphis, the obelisks of Alexandria, Heliopolis, Thebes, and those transported to Rome, Constantinople, and Paris, the immense Sphynx, the gigantic statues of Memnon, and two of the group of Osymandyas,* and the temple of Tentyra, on entering which, Denon observes: "I felt that I was in the sanctuary of the arts and sciences. Never did the labor of man show me the human race, in such a splendid point of view. In the ruins of Tentyra, the Egyptians appeared to me to be giants."

The temples were numerous, as remains of them exist, on both

* Herodotus states that there was a recumbent colossal figure before the temple of Vulcan, at Memphis, which was 75 feet in length.

banks of the Nile, from the island of Elephantina, near the first cataract, to the Delta. The gateway of the peribolus, or court, of many of the temples, was stupendous in its dimensions, and on the borders of the avenues, by which it was approached, were lofty obelisks, ranges of enormous sphynxes, and statues. The roofs being flat, the vast blocks of stone of which they were composed, were supported by numerous large and elaborately decorated columns. The apartments were ornamented with sculptures and paintings.

Paelo, in a letter to Carlo Fea, the author of a work on the ruins of Paestum, states that the columns of the temple in Jerusalem, as described in the Books of Kings and Chronicles, were evidently of the Doric order; and Wilkins, in the introduction to his *Magna Græcia*, compares the plans and dimensions of the temples of Paestum, with those of Solomon's, and thus discovers a very remarkable resemblance in many of their details, and especially in the form of the edifices, and the proportions of the columns;* he therefore infers that the Doric order and the first temples of Greece, were of Jewish origin, and that the colonies which were sent from Crete by Minos, who was cotemporary with Solomon, first introduced architecture into Greece. But do not all these facts more probably revert back to Egypt, as the birth-place of the arts, from whence the Israelites transported them to Palestine? Many learned archæologists, however, contend for a still earlier origin, and in conformity to the Ethiopian traditions reported by Diodorus Siculus, insist that the ancient capital of that nation, which was situated on the island of Meroe, where the Nile divides into two branches, in latitude seventeen, was the cradle of the infant Hercules of civilization, from whence letters, science and the arts descended to Thebes, and from thence to Memphis, the last and most magnificent seat of the Pharaohs, which became the grand emporium of commerce and learning for the nations of Asia and Europe, through the intermediation of the Jews, Phœnicians, Greeks, and Romans.

Although there is more of fable than of fact blended in the early history of Greece, it is generally conceded that the religion and laws which prevailed in the various states were derived from Egypt, and it is notorious that Lycurgus, Solon, Plato, Pythagoras, and Eudo-

* The mere temple of Solomon was only about 110 feet long, thirty-six wide, and thirty-six high, exclusive of the roof; and was in form like a Grecian temple in Ante. It, however, stood in an area over a thousand feet square, which was surrounded by a wall, and within it two others, on the insides of which were ranges of columns and cloisters. The space between the outer and second wall constituted the "Court of the Gentiles;" that between the second and the third, the "Court of the Israelites," in which was placed the throne of the king; and between the third and the temple, was the "Court of the Priests," in which was the altar of Burnt Offerings, and the Brazen Sea.

rus, as well as many other eminent Grecians, were indebted to the celebrated schools of that country, for their proficiency in science, jurisprudence, and mythology.* It may, therefore, be presumed, that the architecture of the Greeks was adopted and improved from the same source; and although no exact examples can be discovered in the columns of the Egyptian temples, of the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders, still there is perceived a sufficient general resemblance to warrant the conclusion. This is obvious from an examination of the very perfect delineations in the splendid volumes on the Antiquities of Egypt, which were published during the reign of Napoleon, under the direction of the members of the Institute, who accompanied him in his expedition to that country, and in the works of Belzoni, Champollion, and those of other recent travelers.

One of the causes which has had the greatest influence in retarding the adoption of the Grecian orders, has been the unfortunate attempt to apply them to all kinds of structures, both of a public and private character, when they should have been confined to those purposes only for which they were the most appropriate. Besides, in the experiments which have been made, to render their adoption universally subservient to all classes of edifices, and in every possible variety of location, not only the principles on which they are founded have been grossly violated, but such unwarrantable deviations made, as to obliterate or distort many of their peculiar and most beautiful features, and thus so degrade the characteristic elements of the matchless prototypes, as to render the results as despicable, as the effort was inconsiderate and presumptuous.

Hitherto only two styles had prevailed—that of the Italian school and the Gothic; and as professional architects had been instructed to consider them as the only rivals for precedence, while the most distinguished partisans of each had acquired their reputations as artists, by the projection and construction of edifices in conformity to the favorite system which they may have severally adopted, it was not astonishing that many of them adhered, with obstinate pertinacity, to the theories and precedents, by which they had been guided, and which had been sanctioned by public opinion throughout Europe.

When, therefore, a third style was presented, with claims of precedence paramount to those which had so long been considered as the standards of perfection, time was required for a thorough investigation of its merits, and a just appreciation of the principles and

* Diodorus states, in his 1st Book, chap. 36, that the Priests of Egypt exhibited in their annals, the names of the above, and several other distinguished men, who had travelled, or resided in Egypt, and that their portraits, works, or some other memorial of their visit, were to be seen.

elements on which it was established. At last there were cheering indications in England, France, Germany, Prussia, Russia, and this country, of that decided preference which Grecian architecture so eminently merited, for many important purposes; but Russia has been the earliest to evince such an exalted comprehension of its intrinsic superiority, as to practically illustrate the three orders with a fidelity and magnificence worthy the sovereign of that mighty empire.

The Grecian, Egyptian, Gothic, and Italian systems of architecture having been very generally introduced in Europe and this country, and each of them having been entitled to great consideration, on account of its peculiar appropriateness for a specific purpose, they will doubtless be continued for ages; therefore, the main question now to be settled is, the class of structures to which they should be exclusively confined, and not that of the precedence which should be given to any one of them over all the others. But, unfortunately, discussions upon this subject have been most commonly conducted by the zealous advocates of each, upon the latter hypothesis, instead of magnanimously attempting to define the specific purposes to which they should severally be appropriated, which must depend entirely upon the uses to which the edifices are to be applied, and their location.

The Gothic architecture can only be employed in the construction of sacred edifices, and even then, they must be of immense dimensions, like the noble cathedral of York, for the surfaces are so broken and diversified, the embellishments so numerous and complicated, and all the chief portions so elevated, compared with their horizontal cross sections, that they will not admit of reduction, without being fatal to that grand effect which is so emphatically realized, when the characteristic features of the style are developed in that gigantic manner which renders the general effect sublime. In all the experiments which have been made to apply that style to smaller structures than vast metropolitan basilicas, the fascicles of slender columns, numerous minarets, painted arches, and the profuse sculptured ornaments, are necessarily so diminished, as to become indistinct, confused and insignificant; and when the materials, as is generally the case in this country, are wood, or an incongruous combination of stone, bricks, wood, and paint, the effect is contemptible. It is like imitating the antique sculptures of Corinthian bronze in *papier maché*, when the Gothic should always be executed in stone, and be of colossal dimensions; then it becomes a style, that may properly be classed with those of Egypt and Greece for elegance and majesty; but it must, however, be restricted in its application to the edifices which have been named.

The Grecian and Egyptian architecture may not only be adopted for the same purpose as the Gothic, with equal, if not greater propriety, but also for libraries, galleries of paintings, depositories of statuary, banking-houses, railroad depôts and stations, propylæums or gateways to cities, fortresses, arsenals, navy-yards and public squares; while the former can be properly adopted for halls of legislation, seminaries of learning, and many other public edifices; and they possess this important advantage over the Gothic, for so simple, chaste, and bold, are the forms of the ancient structures of those styles, that imitations of them may be made of the smallest dimensions, and yet retain that symmetrical beauty of outline, for which the originals are so distinguished; and the little temple of Diana at Eleusis, or that cut from a single block of granite at Elephantine,* may be adopted as models for the humblest village chapel. Edifices of these orders, as well as of the Gothic, should be isolated, and the large area, in which they are situated, enclosed by a peribolus, with an appropriate propylæum.

The Italo-Roman, or Palladian style, should be confined to blocks of houses, stores, or other continuous ranges of tenements, in the streets of cities, where numerous stories, windows, and doors are indispensable, as they can be made to harmonize with that manner of construction, and the exuberance of ornaments which it admits, will have a pleasing effect, by varying the monotonous extent of prolonged surface. But, whenever it has been resorted to, for detached structures, the result has been far from being satisfactory, in consequence of the extravagant deviations from that unity of design, utility of purpose, and distinctness of configuration, which are the chief elements of beauty and grandeur, in the most celebrated creations of art. Every attempt, therefore, to rear a large and truly magnificent edifice, in conformity to the principles of the Italian school, has been and ever must be unsuccessful; for there is no distinct and commanding proportional form, which is so uniform in plan, elevation and profile, by an established theory of the appropriate admeasurements of length, breadth, and height, as to be universally applicable, as are those which were established for the temples, porticoes and propylæums of Greece and Egypt.

The Cathedral of St. Peter, at Rome, was intended to have been a triumphal monument of the superiority of the Italian style over all others, and a paragon of architecture for all future ages; and no architect in modern times, has had such a glorious opportunity to acquire distinction, as the projector of that vast Christian temple; for he was unrestricted in design, and unlimited in the means for its complete execution. Yet how lamentably did he fail in

* Herodotus, B. II. Chap. II. Sec. clxxv.

the accomplishment of his object. Having taken the façade of a forum for the several elevations, he boasted that he would suspend the Pantheon in the air, and not content with that extravagant and erroneous conception, he surmounted the apex of the dome with the temple of Juno, on that of the Sibyl at Tivoli, by which unfortunate arrangement, the architectural details of each were lost in the distance and by the acute angles of the lines of vision, while the transferred structures were as useless as the idea of their elevation to those giddy heights was preposterous, and the effect inconsequential.

The Pantheon being circular in plan, the whole roof was appropriately arched, in the centre of which was an aperture for the admission of light into the naos of the temple; the dome, therefore, not only harmonized with the form of the edifice, but added as much grace to the external contour, as it did beauty to the interior.

The several architects, who were successively employed to superintend the work, seem to have made it a principle, to copy all kinds of structures, and every variety of ornament found among the remains of the ancient works of art in Rome; and how infinitely inferior is the entire structure, in beauty and grandeur, to even the dilapidated temple of "All the God," and yet, how much it might have surpassed it, and the most perfect of the Egyptian temples, or those of Minerva and Jupiter in Athens, and that of Juno, in the island of Delos, had either of them been selected for the form, and the imitation made as much longer than the prototype, as the vast mass of materials which were employed would have admitted, for they were sufficient to have more than trebled the dimensions of those celebrated edifices.

Sculpture and painting, like architecture, are the creations of religion, and are to be traced through all the stages of civilization, from the rudest image and simplest sketch made by savage man, to the cyclopic Apollo of Rhodes, and the frescos in the tombs of the Egyptian monarchs, to the statue of Moses by Angelo and the Last Supper of Leonardo da Vinci.

The productions of sculpture, of far distant epochs, have been perpetuated in the ruins of the oldest cities of antiquity, and descriptions of others, of very remote periods, have been transmitted down to the present, in the books of the Old Testament, and in the works of authors, who flourished earlier, contemporaneously, or in later ages. The golden calf and brazen serpent, which were reared in the wilderness during the Exodus of the Israelites; the Cherubim, whose wings were outspread over the mercy-seat of the tabernacle, and the brazen sea supported by twelve brown oxen, exhibited the skill of the Jews and the Tyrian artists, who were employed in executing the ornaments of the temple.

Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus have given very interesting accounts of the statues which were placed in the temple of Belus at Babylon, and in the courts of the temple of Semiramis. Amidst the ruins of Persepolis, Balbec and Nineveh, are still discovered remains of sculpture; and those of the latter city have become objects of such deep interest to the artists and antiquarians of France, that agents have been sent to that once immense and splendid capital of Assyria,* for the purpose of making explorations, and sending the most remarkable specimens to Paris.

Egyptian sculpture has excited the wonder of travelers, since the age of Homer. In the remains of more than forty palaces and temples now exist memorials of the power, resources of the sovereign, and the skill of their sculptors, at an era more distant than the Trojan war.

It was in Greece, however, that the art of sculpture reached the highest point of excellence, and the statues of her artists surpassed in form and beauty of execution, those of all other nations of ancient or modern times. Quintilian remarks that "the Athenian Minerva of Phidias and his Olympian Jupiter, possessed merits, which seemed to have added consequence to religion, so worthy of those divinities was the majesty of the work." His emulous competitors executed the superb sculptures that decorated the Parthenon and the temple of Theseus, and until the conquest of Greece, there was not a city on the shores or islands of the Mediterranean, that did not boast of numerous priceless examples of the genius of her sculptors; and some of the most celebrated were destined to embellish the forums, palaces, and temples of Rome, and a few yet exist, to verify the correctness of the encomiums which history has transmitted.

Rome did not produce any pre-eminent sculptor, and the numerous statues which were made, from the usurpation of sovereign authority by Julius Cæsar, until Constantine established his imperial capital at Byzantium, were the productions of Greeks, who sought employment in other nations, after the subjugation of their native land.

Italy was long the modern Attica of sculpture and painting; but in the former, Chantrey, Thorwaldsen, Greenough, Crawford and Powers have approximated nearer to the models of the age of Pericles, in grandeur of conception and delicacy of execution, than any of their predecessors in Italy; while the latter gifted son of the Green Mountains, has boldly and triumphantly raised the mystic veil, which for more than twenty centuries had screened those beautiful and sublime intellectual creations in the vast Hercula-

* In the time of the Prophet Jonah, it contained over 600,000 inhabitants, and Strabo states that it was larger than Babylon.

neum of genius, which erst had been revealed to the wrapt vision of the ancient sculptors, in all their captivation and splendor.

In painting, Americans have attained such an elevated position, that the productions of Copely, Stuart, Vanderlyn, Leslie and Alston, may be favorably compared with those of their European collaborators.

The complaint is often made, and with truth, that the arts are not sufficiently patronized in this country, either by the people, or the government; but it must be recollected, that they are guests of such dignity and respectful consideration as are only to be found in the holy household of piety and patriotism. When we shall evince as profound a reverence for the Almighty, and his inspired Messenger of the Resurrection and man's immortality, as did the Israelites for their God and our God, and the Egyptians and Greeks for their divinities, then will temples worthy of their sacred object, and the sincerity, gratitude, and munificence of Christians, be constructed throughout the land, and appropriately embellished with sculptures and paintings; and, when American patriotism shall be as expanded, exalted, generous and ardent as that of the Athenians and Romans, then will cenotaphs, statues, columns, triumphal arches, and mausoleums be reared, to commemorate the names and services of the heroes, statesmen, philosophers, and other illustrious citizens of the Republic; and then, and not till then, will painting, sculpture and architecture be appreciated, and artists respected and honored as they were in ancient nations during the most splendid periods of their history.

MEROE.

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THE PLEASURES OF THE EYE AND EAR COMPARED.

The perception of certain analogies between colors and musical sounds, has suggested to speculative ingenuity the possibility of giving to the eye a pleasure from the combination and succession of lively tints, similar to that afforded to the ear by the combination and succession of musical sounds; in other words, that there might be a *visual music*. It was observed that there were seven primitive colors, as there are seven notes in music; and that the same colors give us more pleasure in some combinations than in others.

This conclusion seems, however, to have been too hastily formed, and to have overlooked the great diversity between the senses of vision and hearing, both as to the *sources* of their respective pleasures and the *degree* of pleasure of which they are severally susceptible.

The pleasure which we derive from colors is almost wholly positive, while that from musical sounds is altogether relative to their combination. An object that is red, blue or yellow, is so independent of every other object, and the impression singly made by those colors upon the eye is always the same. But not so with musical sounds. The several notes of the gamut depend upon their relation to other sounds, so that the note or sound which would at one time be A, answers just as well for B at another, and C at a third. In short, any note whatever, in one combination of sounds, or in one scale, may serve for any other note in another scale, or another combination.

Again: the pleasure we derive from seeing single colors is greater than that from hearing single sounds. Clear and bright crimson, or scarlet, green, orange, or purple, cannot be beheld without affording the eye some gratification; but a single sound is heard with utter indifference. It is only by a succession of sounds that the ear can receive lively pleasure.

It is not, however, every succession of notes that can please. Sweetness or melody in music depends upon the particular successions of notes which are fitted by nature to please our organs of hearing; and while some of these series may afford us the liveliest gratification, other series may be heard with indifference, and even with distaste. But one succession of colors, if not the same, is nearly the same as another. Whether we look at red, yellow, and blue, or blue, red and yellow, or yellow, red and blue in succession, the difference is inappreciable.

The influence of every note in music is, on the contrary, affected by the notes which precede or follow it; and, whatever is the effect produced, the same effect would be produced by an infinite number of other notes, provided only they have the same relation to each other. But though any simple sound whatever may stand equally well for A, B, and all the other notes of the gamut, but one modification of light can represent red, blue, or any other color.

Now as there is so great a difference in the mode in which pleasure is produced in the two senses, we should find no difficulty in admitting there may also be a great difference in the degree of pleasure they can respectively confer. Indeed, on the first mention of the subject, it would seem probable that if the eye had been capable of gratification at all comparable to that afforded to the ear by music, man, ever on the search for new enjoyments, would long since have discovered it, in the same way as he has shown himself in every stage of society, sensible to the pleasure of music, and has invented such a variety of instruments for ministering to that pleasure; and the rather, as the acknowledged pleasures of the eye, from reflected light and the prismatic hues, have been at all times

sought by him with indefatigable zeal, in all the three kingdoms of nature. It is to procure this visual gratification that he has drawn gold, silver, and precious stones from the bowels of the earth, and pearls from the depths of the ocean—that he has converted one insect into the most brilliant dye, and the tiny web of another into his most beautiful clothing; and lastly, that no small portion of his labor is expended in staining, dyeing, painting and polishing.

But, on further inquiry, we can see causes for the livelier, though more transient pleasure of music. It is by a particular succession of musical notes that nature has taught man to express his stronger emotions. Every passion has its appropriate tone, or particular series of musical notes, which all human beings are instinctively prompted to utter, and instinctively able to understand; so that the simplest words of a language, as *go, come, yes, no*, may be so pronounced as to indicate to every one who hears them whether they are spoken in joy or grief, in anger or good humor, in fear or confidence. There is thus, then, a connection, created by nature, between sounds and feelings, which does not exist between feelings and colors. Now by means of emotion, our sympathies may be appealed to and excited, and every exercise of them is more or less a source of pleasure, even when we have a fellow feeling with emotions not pleasurable, as when we compassionate the sufferings of others. Possibly, it may be found on a nice analysis, that melody in music consists in those successions of sounds which are best fitted for exciting our sympathies, and that the most melodious is that which calls up those sympathies that are the most pleasing.

But be this as it may, it is clear that nature has made a direct avenue to the human heart through the organs of hearing which she has denied to the organs of sight; and though she had not, it is very conceivable that one sense may be so constituted as to experience a liveliness of pleasure of which another may be incapable; and if water to a thirsty man, or food to a hungry one, can give an intensity of gratification which no pleasure from music could approach, as it unquestionably may, in like manner the ear may find a pleasure from certain series of sounds which no combination of colors can give. And if so much more labor and cost is expended in gratifying the eye than the ear, it is because the pleasure afforded to the first, being embodied in permanent forms, can be repeated and renewed at pleasure, while those of music are lost the moment they are enjoyed, and require a repetition of the same human agency for every renewal of the pleasure.

There is yet another reason why the direct pleasures of vision should be inferior to those of hearing. The eye being the vehicle of sensations greater in number and variety than those of any other sense, it gives rise to a greater number of thoughts and associations.

It probably furnishes nine-tenths of the materials of our mental operations. The consequence is that its powers being thus unremittingly tasked, its original pleasures are proportionately interrupted and diminished. This fact is shown by those who have gained their sight by being couched, and who have shown a sensibility to the beauty of color, form, and soft light that is never witnessed in ordinary eyes.

It would seem, then, that the notion of giving to the eye a pleasure from colors at all correspondent to that afforded to the ear by musical sounds, is visionary, and inconsistent with the unchangeable ordinances of nature.

G. T.

Phila.

THE TRIALS OF DISCOVERY AND ENTERPRISE.

A volume might be filled with interesting records of the discouragements and difficulties of those who are in advance of public opinion. They have invariably met with ridicule and persecution from the ignorant and prejudiced, and are often subject to a still severer trial from the skepticism and tardy convictions of those who are esteemed intelligent and enlightened. This remark is abundantly sustained by facts which belong to the history of the three great movements of the present day—steam-navigation, canals, and railroads. In reference to the obstacles encountered, and the sneers and rebukes endured by their gifted originators, it has truly been said, “let us be tolerant to those who imprisoned Galileo, and rewarded Columbus with chains.”

We give at some length, as evidence in point, the very interesting account by Judge Story, of the first successful experiment of Robert Fulton.

“I, myself,” says the judge, “have heard the illustrious inventor relate in an animated and affecting manner, the history of his labors and discouragements:—‘When,’ said he, ‘I was building my first steamboat at New York, the project was viewed by the public, either with indifference, or with contempt, as a visionary scheme. My friends, indeed, were civil, but they were shy. They listened with patience to my explanations, but with a settled cast of incredulity on their countenances. I felt the full force of the lamentation of the poet,

“Truths would you teach, to save a sinking land,
All shun, none aid you, and few understand.”

“As I had occasion to pass to and from the building-yard while my boat was in progress, I have often loitered unknown near idle groups of strangers, gathering in little circles, and heard various inquiries as to the object of this new vehicle. The language was uniformly that of scorn, sneer, or ridicule. The loud laugh rose at my expense, the dry jest, the wise calculation of losses and expenditures; the dull but endless repetition of *Fulton folly*. Never did a single encouraging remark, a bright hope, or a warm wish, cross my path. Silence itself

was but politeness veiling its doubts, or hiding its reproaches. At length the day arrived when the experiment was to be got into operation. *To me it was a most trying and interesting occasion.* I invited many friends to go on board, to witness the first successful trip. Many of them did me the favor to attend as a matter of personal respect; but it was manifest that they did it with much reluctance, fearing to be partners of my mortification, and not of my triumph. I was well aware that in my case there were many reasons to doubt of my own success. The machinery, (like Fitch's before him,) was new and ill-made, and many parts of it were constructed by mechanics unacquainted with such work, and unexpected difficulties might reasonably be presumed to present themselves from other causes. The moment arrived in which the word was to be given for the vessel to move. My friends were in groups on the deck. There was anxiety mixed with fear among them. They were silent, sad, and weary. I read in their looks nothing but disaster, and almost repented of my efforts. The signal was given, and the boat moved on a short distance, and then stopped, and became immovable. To the silence of the preceding moment, now succeeded murmurs of discontent, and agitations, and whispers, and shrugs. I could hear distinctly repeated, "*I told you it was so; it is a foolish scheme; I wish we were well out of it.*" I elevated myself upon a platform and addressed the assembly. I stated that I knew not what was the matter, but if they would be quiet, and indulge me for half an hour, I would either go on or abandon the voyage for that time. This short respite was conceded without objection. I went below and examined the machinery, and discovered that the cause was a slight mal-adjustment of some of the work. In a short period it was obviated. The boat was again put in motion. She continued to move on. All were still incredulous. None seemed willing to trust the evidence of their senses. We left the fair city of New York; we passed through the romantic and ever-varying scenes of the Highlands; we descried the clustering houses of Albany; we reached its shores; and then, even then, when all seemed achieved, I was the victim of disappointment. Imagination superseded the influence of fact. It was then doubted, if it could be done again; or, if done, it was doubted if it could be made of any great value."

To this account of the disheartening difficulties attending the beginning of the great discovery and enterprise of Fulton, may be aptly added some incidents connected with the first project for opening a canal communication between the Hudson and Lake Erie. In the Assembly of New York, on the 4th of February, 1808, Joshua Forman, a member from Onondaga County, proposed that "a joint committee be appointed to take into consideration the propriety of exploring and causing an accurate survey to be made of the most eligible and direct route for a canal to open a communication between the tide waters of the Hudson and Lake Erie, to the end that Congress may be enabled to appropriate such sums as may be necessary to the accomplishment of that great object." The proposition was ridiculed as visionary and absurd—the execution of it was regarded by many as impracticable—but it was firmly sustained by the mover and his friends, and the Legislature finally consented to appropriate *six hundred dollars* for the exploration of a route, upon the principle "that it could do no harm, and might do some good." When, in January 1809, Mr. Forman waited on Mr. Jefferson, and informed him that the State of New York had ex-

plored the route of a canal from the Hudson to Lake Erie, and found it practicable, the President replied "that it was a very fine project, and might be executed a century hence."

Soon after, in 1810, the project received further attention from the Legislature, and the powerful support of Mr. Clinton.

De Witt Clinton and Gouverneur Morris were appointed commissioners to seek aid from Congress. They were unsuccessful. The war of 1812 arrested all further proceedings. After its termination, the subject was revived, and in 1817, nine years after the first proposition was made, a memorial was presented to the Legislature signed by more than one hundred thousand citizens, calling for the commencement of the proposed canal. Immediate action was the consequence, and in 1825 the great Erie Canal from Buffalo to Albany was completed, at a cost of eight millions of dollars.

The early projectors of railways had similar difficulties to encounter. The following letter from Robert R. Livingston, formerly Chancellor of New York, one of the most intelligent men of his time, to the late Col. John Stevens of Hoboken, New Jersey, is another instance of the impediments and trials to which men of genius are subjected.

"Albany, March 11, 1811.

"DEAR SIR:—I did not, till yesterday, receive yours of the 25th of February; where it has loitered on the road I am at a loss to say. I had before read your very ingenious propositions as to the railway communication. I fear, however, on mature reflection, that they will be liable to serious objections, and ultimately more expensive than a canal. They must be *double*, so as to prevent the danger of two such heavy bodies meeting. The *walls* on which they are placed, must be at least four feet below the surface and three above, and must be clamped with iron; and even then would hardly sustain so heavy a weight as you propose moving at the rate of *four* miles an hour on wheels. As to wood, it would not last a week. They must be covered with iron, and that too, very thick and strong. The means of stopping these heavy carriages without a *great shock*, and of preventing them from running upon each other, (for there would be many on the road at once,) would be very difficult. In case of accidental stops, or the necessary stops to take wood and water, &c., many accidents would happen. The carriage of condensing water would be very troublesome. Upon the whole, I fear the expense would be much greater than that of canals, without being so convenient."

The obstacles presented to railroad enterprise in England, and the final triumph of the enterprise, are forcibly set forth in the following extract from a late journal.

In 1825, the *Quarterly Review* thus ridiculed the notion of certain engineers, Talford among the number, that a railway engine could go eighteen or twenty miles an hour. "The gross exaggerations of the powers of the locomotive steam-engine, or, to speak English, the steam-carriage, may delude for a time, but must end in the mortification of those concerned. * * * We should as soon expect the people of Woolwich to suffer themselves to be fired off

upon one of Congreve's ricochet rockets, as trust themselves to the mercy of such a machine, going at such a rate."

In that year the common belief was that railways were altogether delusions and impositions. The Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opposed in Parliament with every form of invective. One member, in 1825, declared his opinion "that a railway could not enter into successful competition with a canal. Even with the best locomotive engine, the average rate would be but $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour, which was slower than the canal conveyance." Another assertion, which Mr. Huskisson was obliged to meet doubtfully and apologetically, was "that there were two or three canals, which were sufficient for every purpose of commerce in the district through which the railway was to pass." If there be a reality in any discovery—a true thing, and not a sham—if there be strength, or utility, or beauty in any work of the mind, it will live and fructify, whatever critics, or orators, or inquisitors, or even kings may do to crush it. And so it is with railways. On the 15th September, 1830, the first passenger line, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, was opened. The conveyance of passengers appears originally to have been an inferior consideration to the conveyance of goods; and the directors modestly anticipated that one-half of the passengers traveling by coaches between the two towns might venture on the railway. In the first year after the opening, there were conveyed 445,000 passengers; in the year ending 1st July, 1845, the passengers so conveyed amounted to 897,003. On the 24th April, 1847, there had been a total expended on the railways of the United Kingdom, of £78,000,000 sterling; and in the last week the aggregate receipts upon these railways was £160,900, being a total exceeding £8,000,000 per annum, for the conveyance of passengers and goods.

As an accompaniment to the foregoing sketch, we append an account of John Fitch, who is by many regarded as the discoverer of steam navigation.

"In 1785, *John Fitch*, a watch-maker in Philadelphia, conceived the design of propelling a boat by steam. He was both poor and illiterate, and many difficulties occurred to frustrate every attempt which he made to try the practicability of his invention. He applied to Congress for assistance, but was refused; and then offered his invention to the Spanish government, to be used in the navigation of the Mississippi, but without any better success. At length a company was formed, and funds subscribed for the building of a steamboat, and in the year 1788, his vessel was launched on the Delaware. Many crowded to see and ridicule the novel, and, as they supposed, the chimerical experiment. It seemed that the idea of wheels had not occurred to Mr. Fitch; but, instead of them, oars were used which worked in frames. He was confident of success; and when the boat was ready for trial, she started off in good style for Burlington. Those who had sneered, began to stare, and they who had smiled in derision, looked grave. Away went the boat, and the happy inventor triumphed over the skepticism of an unbelieving public. The boat performed her trip to Burlington, a distance of twenty miles; but unfortunately, burst her boiler in rounding to the wharf at that place, and the next tide floated her back to the city. Fitch persevered, and with great difficulty, procured another boiler. After some time, the boat performed another trip to Burlington and Trenton, and returned the same day. She is said to have moved at the rate of eight miles an hour; but something was continually breaking, and the unhappy projector only conquered one difficulty, to encounter another. Perhaps this was not owing to any defect in his plans, but to the low state of the arts at that time, and the difficulty of getting such complex machinery made with proper exactness. Fitch be-

came embarrassed with debt, and was obliged to abandon his invention, after having satisfied himself of its practicability. This ingenious man, who was probably the first inventor of the steamboat, wrote three volumes, which he deposited in manuscript, sealed up, in the Philadelphia Library, to be opened thirty years after his death. When or why he came to the west, we have not learned; but it is recorded of him that he died, and was buried near the Ohio. His three volumes were opened about five years ago, and were found to contain his speculations on mechanics. He details his embarrassments and disappointments, with a feeling which shows how ardently he desired success, and which wins for him the sympathy of those who have heart enough to mourn over the blighted prospects of genius. He confidently predicts the future success of the plan, which, in his hands, failed only for want of pecuniary means. He prophesies that in less than a century, we shall see our western rivers swarming with steamboats; and expresses a wish to be buried on the shores of the Ohio, where the song of the boatmen may enliven the stillness of his resting-place, and the music of the steam-engine soothe his spirit. What an idea! Yet how natural to the mind of an ardent projector, whose whole life had been devoted to one darling object, which it was not his destiny to accomplish! And how touching is the sentiment found in one of his journals: 'the day will come when some more powerful man will get fame and riches from my invention; but nobody will believe that poor John Fitch can do anything worthy of attention.'"—*Hull's Notes.*

MUSIC.

Music, like painting, is intimately connected with poetry. They came together into existence. In ancient Greece, the sounds of the lyre were only heard as echoes of the voice of the bard, and the sweet strains of the harp of Israel's king were expressive of the spontaneous thoughts of the poet.

The laws of concord and discord, of harmony and melody, are founded in the constitution of man. He seeks as naturally for the gratification of music, as for food to allay hunger or drink to quench thirst, for it is the natural delight and pleasure of the ear.

The causes of this pleasure, it has been remarked, admit of philosophical analysis. It depends upon established proportions between the vibrations from which the relative tones arise. These vibrations may be accurately measured, and the proportions of those which agree and those which disagree may be marked with mathematical precision.

Any succession of sounds that excites in a well-tuned ear agreeable sensations, is called Music, and in regard to it as a science, we remark, that the indispensable points in music are tune and time. The first is the perfect intonation of every sound, giving it a proper degree of sharpness, or otherwise, according to its relative situation, and the latter is the art, or rather the talent, of bestowing the proper extent of each note's duration.

The shrill tones which pierce the ear are called acute or high, and are the natural tones of infantine voices, and the intonations of manhood, which vibrate with less shrillness, are of the class that are called grave or low.

Singers are divided into classes, which accord with the supposed division of the human voice into six different species—viz: the *bass*, which is the lowest; the *baritone* or tenor-bass; the *tenor*, or counter-tenor, which are the two middle species of which the generality of men's voices partake; the *mezzo-soprano*, which is the pitch of women's voices generally; and the *soprano* or *treble*, or uppermost, which in some women reaches to a great height, and is often allotted to young boys in Cathedral service.

The degrees of strength, the loudness or softness of voices, have no effect on the pitch or relative tone, for you may whisper in bass, and bawl in treble or soprano. And, therefore, when high or low is mentioned, it is in reference to some audible test—as in the sound of instruments; or in the mind, the estimation is formed by the aid of memory.

To express the sounds that are produced, five lines, called a stave, are drawn. Yet all are not represented on the stave—some are below—some above, and the relative sounds are represented on the leger line. But even this plan would be ineffectual to specify all the intonation in the six species had not the celebrated John Murio, in the 14th century, offered the world a new system, whereby not only the value, *i. e.* the proper duration of each note, but the compass or extent of each part was distinctly laid down by appropriate *clefs* or keys, vulgarly called cliffs. Until that time, the value of each note was known only by letters and signs, according to Guido's notation. The musical scale invented by Murio, 400 years ago, notwithstanding the wonderful advances in music, remains as he first ushered it into the world.

Music would be esteemed quite tame and insipid, had not the composers of modern days shown with what excellent effect discord may be introduced—effected, as every master of music knows, by the permutations and changes of keys. These serve to vary and embellish passages which would else be tame or nearly monotonous. These variations are like the bold shadows in painting, which serve to revive the lighter parts, making them more brilliant and conspicuous. The paucity of permutations in the music of former times would render it puerile and tame to a modern theorist. In the compositions of these times, every possible change is introduced, and compared with them, the monotony of the cotemporaries of the celebrated Guido would be little more than an octave of bells.

We mean nothing, however, in detraction of those plain and simple melodies—those sweet and beautiful strains, every note of which is

attractive, and like Pleyel's hymn, combines the pure worship of the soul with the genuine language of harmony.

The origin of music must have been very ancient. The Egyptians declared that they received it from the gods, and the Hebrews consecrated it to the Divinity.

In the antediluvian world, the harp and the organ were invented at an early period, and indeed the predisposition of man to delight in musical sounds must have induced him to take the first hint to produce them artificially, such as the rustling of the wind among the leaves—its whistling through hollow reeds, or the humming of insects.

And if a model were wanted to suggest the art of singing, the sweetness and variety of tones among the feathered tribe would prompt to a trial of the melody of the human voice; for the language of birds is strikingly musical, and their tones and modulations exquisite and varied. Among insects, too, there is a diversified talent of uttering sound, sometimes expressive of pain, and sometimes of pleasure.

Some animals have the power of producing sounds by an external organ, such as the gold-chaffer, which utters a shrill shriek of affright by rubbing its chest against its wings; the tinus fatideus, or death watch, that produces the measured strokes so alarming to the superstitious, by striking its horny frontlet against any hard substance on which it stands; and the Italian grasshopper, that by a singular apparatus under the chest, can produce very loud and distinct tones. There is then a probability, that the animal creation, in the origin of music, afforded sounds of imitation to man.

The Greeks, who were fond of claiming every invention, ascribed to Mercury the invention of the lyre. They say that the shell of a tortoise having been exposed on the shore till the flesh was entirely dried up, and nothing but the sinews remained stretched over the concavity, was observed by Mercury to emit musical sounds, and thus was suggested to him the lyre. Such fictions are pleasant in poets, but do not satisfy the philosopher. The art of music, as we have mentioned, springs from the natural propensity of man. The passion and the capability for music are innate; for mere infants have been found to judge of what is called music in or out of time. The discovery of musical proportions has been attributed by some writers to Tubal Cain, by others to Pythagoras. Some assert that the system of the mutual relations of sounds and the concords in music can be traced to the Hindoos, and even to an earlier and now forgotten people. If Pythagoras be the inventor, then the system of tetrachords would be of Italian origin; for, though Pythagoras was a Greek, yet he took up his residence in Calabria, and there, it is said, founded his system. Certain it is that in Italy the art of music was cultivated at a very

early day. The fable of the Syrens, stripped of its allegorical veil, becomes an historical monument, and proves the splendor and abuse of music in Italy, even before the fabled Orpheus sung, when the females of Ausonia were regarded as supernatural beings, in consequence of their adding to the bewitching charms of beauty the power of this enchanting art.

We have not time to trace its history—its banishment from Rome—its introduction into the Church—the improvements made in it by the spiritualized breathings of Ambrose and Gregory—its vicissitudes during the darkness and chaos of the middle ages, after Vandal and Goth had prostrated all that was fair, beautiful and fascinating in the civilized world—or the progress of instrumental music, and the introduction of organs into France. Neither in this hasty sketch can we do justice to the mighty sons of song, such as Vinci, Marcello, Gluck, Handel, Mozart, Viotti, Haydn, Duranti, Rossini and many more, whose union of the doctrine of harmony with the sweet charms of melody, has made “with sweeter notes each rising temple ring,” and the flashes of whose genius have thrown a brilliancy and splendor upon this fascinating and divine art.

What a vast field of observation does this noble art present! It is at the same time a sensual and an intellectual pleasure. It gratifies the ear and delights the mind. Such has been the universal homage paid to it, it needs no eulogium.—

The warrior and the philosopher, the tyrant and the patriot, the free and the slave, the sober Christian and the enthusiast, have all felt its magic influence and owned its power. The spirit-stirring music of war increases the impatience of the battle steed, and hurries him headlong into the red tide of conflict. The enchantment of the harp soothed to rest the blind bard of the North who sung the deeds of the mighty Fingal, and long before had changed the nature of a Saul as well as elevated the piety of a David, the minstrel king and sweet-singer of Israel, to whom the “sounds of harmony” were so truly inspiring and divine. It has been remarked, that the touching sweetness of song has often won the female heart, and has been the sovereign of the willing soul, when “*love was crowned, but music won the cause.*” Certain it is, that this noble art has unlocked the gates of joy, and opened the sources of sympathetic tears; has caused infant eyes to sparkle with the delight of being lulled to sleep, and has recalled to memory the strains of those who are gone; when in solitude the sounds of music have crept into our ears, while there seemed to breathe around us the voices of departed spirits, and the rapt soul has sought communion with the dead:

“The lost, the loved, the dead were near.”

The potent influence of music has therefore been universally ac-

knowledged by mankind; and even brute creatures are charmed and melted by its strains.

The whole creation feels its power.

“The poet did feign that Orpheus drew trees, stones and flowers—
Since naught so stockish, hard, or full of rage,
But music for the time doth change his nature.”

S.

(For the Register.)

THE MUSES.

(BY A LADY OF TROY, N. Y.)

The Muses winged their way to earth,
 Wrapped in a silvery cloud,
And, pausing at my household hearth,
 Smiled on me as they bowed.

And never beamed there on the sight,
 And ne'er did poet's pencil trace,
A vision half so strangely bright,
 Nor half so full of heavenly grace.

For they had fed on angel's food,
 On high Parnassus' holy hill;
And they had bathed them in the flood
 Of Helicon,—so pure and still.

I gazed with joy, with wondrous joy,
 Upon this vision of delight;
Fearful each moment would destroy
 The fleeting image from my sight—

When quickly on my listening ear,
 There burst a harmony of sound,
Like those blest tones we only hear
 While treading upon holy ground.

I knelt me down;—in whispered tone,
 I prayed that they would deign to shower
One drop from hallow'd Helicon,
 To be my blessed earthly dower.

And more I know not;—for there stole
A dreamy stillness o'er my soul,
And when I oped my eyes to day,
The vision all had passed away;
The boon was still denied to me,
The boon I prayed for,—*poesy*.

The poet's fate is not *my* fate;
 I do not hear the sounds *he* hears;
I've entered no Elysian gate;
 But earthly thoughts and hopes and fears
Cling like a shroud unto my form;
 No rainbow *bright* to me appears—
I only see the cloud and storm.

H. W. Y.

INHABITANTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Those three great varieties of the human family which are most widely separated from each other, are all found in the United States; the *white race*, descendants of Europeans, or Europeans themselves; the *black*, or *negro race*, descendants of Africans, or Africans themselves; and the indigenous red men of America. Of these, the whites and blacks are still confined, principally, to the east side of the Mississippi; while four-fifths of the red, or Indian race, occupy as hunters almost the whole great wilderness west of it. Their respective numbers in 1840 were—whites, 14,189,108; colored, free, 386,245, and slaves, 2,487,213, of whom one-fifth may be of the mixed race of white and black; and Indians, estimated at 450,000, of whom 129,266 were within the limits of the states and territories.

The whites, though descended from principally the English and Irish, may find ancestors in almost every nation of Europe. In some cases, the descendants of particular nations are diffused throughout the whole population, but in others, they are confined to certain states, or parts of states. Thus, the Germans have settled principally in the western parts of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, and North Carolina, and more indiscriminately in the western states. The French, or their descendants, are more numerous in Louisiana, Missouri, and the western margin of the Mississippi than elsewhere. Many of the French Hugonots found an asylum in South Carolina, and a few in the other states, early in the last century; and about the end of it, emigrants from France, and the French West Indies, settled in most of the cities and towns. The descendants of the Dutch, the original proprietors of New York, are found principally in that state and New Jersey. There are a few of Spanish stock in Louisiana and Florida. Though the descendants of the English, Scotch and Irish constitute the basis of the population everywhere, yet the Irish are probably more numerous than the other two in New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the western parts of Virginia and the Carolinas. The English are more unmixed in New England generally, and in Eastern Virginia, than in any of the other states. But the aggregate population, derived from such different and unequal sources, has, by commingling through several generations, formed one entire mass, though here and there, the peculiar tinge of the several elements, both small and great, may be distinctly traced.

The character of the people of the United States, both physical

and moral, is, no doubt, very similar to that of the European nations from which they are descended. We find in them the same activity of body and mind; the same restless longing for something more and better than they have; the same constancy of purpose; the same invention and acuteness in their pursuits, whether of science or gain, of power or pleasure. They exhibit the same sensibility to the beautiful and grand; the same high power of combination and deduction; the same propensity to frame laws and regulations, and the same impatience under their restraints; the same endless diversity of temperament and of character;—all those intellectual and moral qualities which have placed Europe before the other parts of the world in letters, arts and arms. But the similarity, great as it is, has been modified by circumstances. In general, the Americans are tall, partly from the climate and from their pursuits, which, whether of pleasure or business, are mostly carried on in the open air; they are strong, from a plentiful and nourishing diet, and they have sallow complexions, from the heat and dryness of the climate. Indeed, the only striking visible changes which the European race has undergone in America are, a greater elongation of person, with less breadth, and a sallower skin. The teeth have been supposed to be more liable to decay in America than in Europe—though upon no sufficient evidence.

There are also many local modifications of the national character. Thus, the New Englanders are distinguished for hardy enterprise—for mechanical ingenuity—for commercial astuteness. In the slaveholding states, whether middle, southern or western, the natives are often indolent, improvident and proud; but are also hospitable, sanguine, frank and unsuspecting. They are courteous, jealous of their personal dignity, and brave from their self-respect, their easy circumstances, and redundant leisure. They are also votaries of pleasure—are addicted to gaming—to field-sports, and sometimes to drinking, from the same causes. The women are generally modest, religious, attached to their husbands, and good house-wives.

If the habit of being waited on for all purposes, and of meeting with implicit obedience in slaves, often favors irritability or caprice of temper, and sometimes a tyrannical or unfeeling disposition; the habit of forbearance which domestic slavery may also superinduce, occasionally produces remarkable mildness and moderation in the master. Nor can there anywhere be found more striking examples of the amiable virtues, or of those qualities which imply self-command, than in the slaveholding states.

The inhabitants of the Western States can hardly be said to have any characteristics to distinguish them from the people of the Atlantic States, from which they were respectively settled, except, per-

haps, a greater freedom of speech and manners. Though the first often exhibits itself in an engaging frankness, it occasionally degenerates into effrontery. Their habitual contempt for the modes of society that are merely conventional, sometimes amuses by its novelty and simplicity.

The physical character of the negro race is nearly the same in America as in Africa, except that in America the negroes are generally not of so deep a black, and they are often more corpulent. Though fear is their governing impulse, they often feel the liveliest attachment to their masters, and to the families in which they have been brought up, and are even proud of their dependence. Strongly addicted to sensual pleasures of every sort, and careless of the future, they are cheerful and happy whenever they are relieved from the immediate pressure of labor. They are distinguished both from the white and Indian race, not more by their complexion than by their woolly hair, and the forms of their features, legs, and feet. These obvious physical differences between themselves and their masters in the south, contribute to impress upon them, with few exceptions, a sense of the natural superiority of the whites, and thus to reconcile them to their condition. They are generally thought by the whites to be inferior to themselves in intellect; but the fact can scarcely be considered as proved. We must make large allowance for the absence of every powerful stimulus to the cultivation of their faculties, for who ever attained intellectual eminence unless he was urged by the love of praise, or wealth, or power, none of which motives can operate on this degraded race under the circumstances in which the most fortunate of them are placed? The utmost ambition, even of those who are free, is to obtain a decent mediocrity. In the employments and occupations which they are permitted to practice, as those of musicians, blacksmiths, carpenters, &c., and in which they can reach the full rewards of excellence, they are often successful competitors with the whites.

The mulattoes, and all others of the mixed breed of blacks and whites, are manifestly superior to the pure African race, both in body and mind; and it affords matter of inquiry and speculation whether the acknowledged *mental* superiority of the mixed race may be referred to the stimulus of pride arising from their consciousness of a higher descent, and their supposed physical advantages, or to be regarded as imaginary, or resolved into a mere matter of taste; or whether there is really a natural superiority on the part of the whites, a portion of which is transmitted to the mixed race; or lastly, whether, as some have suggested, the mixture of the two races is not an improvement on both. Whatever may be the solution of this question, yet, in personal beauty, in strength, agility,

vigorous health, and quickness of apprehension, the mixed race appears, as a class, to be very remarkable.

The Indians are distinguished from the other two races by the color of their complexion, and by their long, coarse, coal-black hair, never crisped as that of the African, or curled as is sometimes that of the whites, and by a scantiness of beard. All their senses, at least those of sight, hearing, and smell, are remarkably acute. In war and the chase they are indefatigable; but they are very averse to all regular or mechanical labor. Cold and phlegmatic in their temperament, they have an irresistible craving for spirituous liquors; and the same constitutional peculiarity, aided by their education and habits, produces that insensibility to bodily pain by which they are characterized. Their faces often have the Kalmuc or Tartar expression, but occasionally exhibit the finest models for the sculptor. They have good natural intellects, and excel in public speaking, both as to force of language and grace of delivery. They are much addicted to gaming, and are invariably superstitious. They are commonly faithful to their engagements either to friend or foe; and their high sense of retributive justice is manifested as much in firmly submitting to its decrees as in inexorably enforcing them. These characteristics are most conspicuous in the tribes which have had the least intercourse with the whites; indeed, it is generally found that after they have lived for two or three generations near the white settlements, they lose all their nobler attributes with their pride of independence, and add the vices of civilization to their own. The mixed breed are a fine-looking race, and are evidently an improvement in personal appearance on the Indian, if not on the white man. The Cherokees and the Choctaws have been most successful in cultivating the arts of civilized life.—*Professor Tucker.*

To the foregoing interesting sketch, we add the following notice of the Southern races.

Mixed Races of South America and Mexico.—Dr. Tschudi, a distinguished German naturalist, has recently published a work entitled "Travels in Peru," which is well known. In this work he gives a list of the crosses, resulting from the intermixture of the Spanish with the Indian and negro races in that country. The settlement of Mexico by the Spaniards took place at the same time, and the intermixture of races has been perhaps greater in that country than in Peru. An officer of our army informs us that the Mexican soldiers present the most unequal characters that can be met with anywhere in the world. Some are brave, and many others quite the reverse, and possessing the basest and most barbarous qualities. This, doubtless, is a result in part of the crossings of the races.

The following is Tschudi's list of the *crossing* in Peru :

<i>Parents.</i>	<i>Children.</i>
White father and negro mother,	Mulatto.
White father and Indian mother,	Mestizo.
Indian father and negro mother,	Chino.
White father and mulatto mother,	Cuarteron.
White father and mestiza mother,	Creole, pale, brownish complexion.
White father and china mother,	Chino-Blanco.
White father and cuarterena mother,	Quintero.
White father and quintera mother,	White.
Negro father and Indian mother,	Zambo.
Negro father and mulatto mother,	Zambo-negro.
Negro father and mestiza mother,	Mulatto-oscuro.
Negro father and china mother,	Zambo chino.
Negro father and zamba mother,	Zambo negro, perfectly black.
Negro father and quintera mother,	Mulatto, rather dark.
Indian father and mulatto mother,	Chino-oscuro.
Indian father and mestiza mother,	Mestizo-claro, frequent- ly very beautiful.
Indian father and china mother,	Chino-chola.
Indian father and zamba mother,	Zambo-claro.
Indian father and china-cholar mother,	Indian with frizly hair.
Indian father with quintera mother,	Mestizo, rather brown.
Mulatto father and zamba mother,	Zamba, a miserable race.
Mulatto father and mestiza mother,	Chino, rather clear com- plexion.
Mulatto father and china mother,	Chino, rather dark.

The effect of such intermixture upon the character is thus stated by Dr. Tschudi;—"To define their characteristics correctly would be impossible; for their minds partake of the mixture of their blood. As a general rule, it may be fairly said, that they unite in themselves all the faults, without any of the virtues of their progenitors; as men they are generally inferior to the pure races, and as members of society they are the worst class of citizens."

BRIEF HISTORY OF MEXICO.

The following brief history of Mexico since its independence will afford some faint idea of the misgovernment and anarchy which have desolated that beautiful country for the last twenty-five years. Its occupation by the American troops will be the first taste of good government it has had for many years, and our holding it would be deemed, by many, an undeniable benefit to its inhabitants.

Upon the adoption of the Constitution of 1824, which was copied from our own, *Victoria* was elected President of Mexico, and was installed on the first of January, 1825. He had scarcely, however, served out his constitutional term of office (four years), when a most violently contested election declared *Pedraza* as his successor on the 10th of September, 1828. The unsuccessful party, alleging fraud, declared *Guerrero* to be the rightfully elected President on the 1st of January, 1829. He held his office by a very precarious tenure, until October, 1830, when he was deposed by dissatisfied partisans, and *Bustamente* proclaimed President. *Bustamente* was, in his turn, displaced, through the influence of the young General *Santa Anna*. *Pedraza* was by him re-called to serve out *the three remaining months* of his term.—Upon the expiration of this time, *Santa Anna* himself became President in 1833. He retired for a time, and left *Gomez Farias* to fill his place.

On the 13th of May, 1834, *Santa Anna* dissolved the Constitutional Congress and Council, and by a military order summoned another. He suddenly became a Centralist. *Farias* was deposed, and Gen. *Barragan* took his place. The new Centralist Congress met in January, 1835. Their first order was for the disarming of the militia of the States. *Zacatecas* refused as well as *Texas*. The plan of *Toluca* went into operation under the auspices of *Santa Anna*, which abolished the legislatures of the States, and changed them into military departments, each under a military commandant; and all of these to be amenable to the chief authority, a dictator, *Santa Anna*. Upon this, *Texas* took up arms—declared against the revolutionary plan of *Santa Anna*: and in favor of restoring and maintaining the Constitution of 1825. *Zacatecas* had also taken this stand, but was reduced by the dictator. *Texas* remained yet to be subdued, and to be compelled

“To sue for claims, and own a conqueror.”

In September, 1835, General *Cos* marched against her. In October, 1835, she found the Lexington of her revolution at *Gonzales*; a Bunker Hill at *Goliad*; a Saratoga at *San Antonio*; and finally, on the 26th of April, 1830, a Yorktown at *San Jacinto*. On the 2d

of March previous, however, finding it utterly vain to struggle for the re-establishment of the Mexican Constitution of 1825, Texas had declared her independence.

In 1837, Bustamente was again elected President of Mexico. In July, 1840, another revolution broke out, in which Gen. Urrea and Gomez Farias seized the presidency, and after a conflict of twelve days, agreed upon an amnesty.

In August, 1841, Paredes and Santa Anna both rose against Bustamente, bombarded the city, and deposed him. During the same month, Santa Anna had the "plan of Toluca" superseded by another, that of "Tacubaya," which gave to the General of the army (himself) the power to call a Junta which should elect a provisional President. In June, 1842, Congress assembled under this revolutionary "plan." In December, Santa Anna dissolved it. It was not until January, 1844, that the Mexican Government got fairly into operation under this new plan.

At the instance of Santa Anna, four millions of dollars were voted by Congress to prosecute the war against Texas. He retired soon after to his plantation, and Canalizo was elected President by one vote.

In the fall of 1844, Paredes declared against Santa Anna, and marched against the capital. On the 6th of December, 1844, the latter was deposed, and General Herrera elected provisional President. (This was the time when Santa Anna's leg was dug up and dragged through the streets of Mexico, and he himself banished.)

On the 16th of September, 1845, Herrera having been declared elected, took the official oath as President. On the 21st of Dec., 1845, having manifested a willingness to amicably settle the Texas difficulty with the United States, by receiving a commission "clothed with full powers to settle all the difficulties between the two countries," he was displaced by Paredes, who breathed the fiercest hostility to Texas and the United States.

Santa Anna, who was the known and bitter rival of Paredes, was permitted to return to Mexico, as it was thought such were his relations, his influence might favor peace: at any rate, it could not put a more hostile aspect upon Mexican policy than it already wore. He became President again, and has lately again been deposed from power.

Such is the history of that oppressed people. Since 1824, they have had sixteen Presidents, more than half of whom were mere usurpers and military adventurers.—*Inquirer.*

THE REVOLUTION OF TEXAS.

Settlements were made in the limits of Texas as early as 1692, but the savages were so hostile in the vicinity, that but little progress was effected. The Spanish government, and afterwards that of the Mexican, in order to establish settlements in this territory, offered grants of lands and other inducements to settlers from the United States. Early in 1821, Stephen B. Austin, from Connecticut, went to the Brazos river to secure a portion of territory which his father had bequeathed to him. He secured the grant, and liberal offers were made by the government to others who would settle there.

Many settlers accepted these offers, and their increase and prosperity began to alarm the Mexican government. When Iturbide was dethroned in Mexico, a confederation was formed; Coquila and Texas were united in one state, and a system of measures was adopted which finally led to the declaration of Texan independence. In 1825, the Mexican Congress passed a law prohibiting all traffic in slaves, and freeing all born in Texas at the age of 14; and soon a law was passed freeing all slaves in the limits of Texas. As most of the settlers were planters from the southern states, who had brought their slaves with them, these laws were considered by them to be unjust and oppressive.

The Texans in vain petitioned the Mexican Congress for relief; and Stephen Austin, when visiting the capital for this purpose, was seized and put in prison, where he was confined two years. Upon the abrogation of the state government, and the establishment of *Centralism* under Santa Anna, a convention of the citizens of Texas was called, and independence from Mexico was declared. General Cos having been sent by the Mexican government to dissolve the legislature and seize the members, the people of Texas flew to arms. On the 8th of October, 1835, they moved upon Goliad, a strong fortress, which they carried after a bloody engagement. A force of 1000 men, under the command of Austin, advanced upon San Antonio, where General Cos was entrenched with 1,500 men, and forced him to surrender on condition that the prisoners should be allowed to pass beyond the Rio Grande.

Santa Anna, the President of Mexico, with a force of 8000 men, moved forward, threatening to exterminate the Americans from the soil of Texas. The right of his army moved in the direction of Matamoras; the centre and left, under Santa Anna himself, marched towards San Jacinto. It was his intention that the divisions should move in parallel lines and keep up a communication, and so sweep the province, and meet at Galveston.

In March, 1836, San Antonio de Bexar was besieged, and the Alamo was defended by a force of only 187 men, commanded by Colonel W. B. Travis. The garrison sustained the siege for two weeks, till they were all slain but seven, who surrendered; and, it is stated, they were afterwards put to death by the order of Santa Anna. Besides Colonel Travis, here fell Colonel David Crockett and Colonel James Bowie, the inventor of the *Bowie knife*. The loss of the Mexicans in storming the place is stated in some accounts to have been 1,000 in killed and wounded.

While Santa Anna was engaged at San Antonio, General Urrea marched upon Goliad. Before he reached this place, he came up with Colonel Fanning's troops, with whom a bloody action was fought. On the 20th of March, Colonel Fanning, with 520 Texans, surrendered as prisoners of war; and nine days afterwards all were shot down by the Mexicans, except six only, who escaped under cover of the smoke of their guns.

On the 21st of April, 1836, Santa Anna fell in with a body of 783 Texans, commanded by General Houston, near the banks of the *San Jacinto*. After some considerable skirmishing, the Mexicans retired to their camp. Being masked by the timber, the Texans marched into a valley in front of the Mexican camp, and at once rushed upon their line. When within about six hundred yards, the Mexicans opened their fire upon them. Nothing daunted by this, the Texans moved on till they were within about seventy yards of their foes, when they opened a terrible and destructive fire. As they were most of them armed with double-barreled guns, and many with five or six pistols, besides knives and tomahawks, they did not stop to reload, but rushed on amid the smoke, and as soon as they could see the enemy, fired again, and thus swept over them like wind. The Mexican artillery was taken already loaded and primed, and turned and fired upon the Mexicans as they retreated in total rout and confusion. The Texan loss was only 2 killed and 23 wounded, 6 mortally. The Mexican loss was stated to be 630 killed, 208 wounded, and 730 prisoners, among whom was Santa Anna and his principal officers.

In May, 1836, a convention or agreement was signed at Velasco, between D. G. Burnet, President of Texas, and Santa Anna, by which it was stipulated that hostilities between the Mexican and Texan troops should cease, and that Santa Anna should be sent to Vera Cruz. The Mexicans made repeated demonstrations, apparently with the view of recovering Texas: but owing to dissensions among themselves, and other causes, nothing of importance was effected.

On the 1st of March, 1845, the joint resolutions for the annexation of Texas to the United States, which had previously passed

both Houses of Congress, received the signature of President Tyler, and thus became a law. On the 18th of June following, joint resolutions passed both branches of the Texan Congress, by a unanimous vote, giving the consent of that body to the annexation of Texas to the United States.—(*Incidents of History.*)

AMERICAN TREES.

In Europe, in Asia, in Africa, and even in South America, the primeval trees, how much soever their magnitude may arrest admiration, do not grow in the promiscuous style that prevails in the great general character of the North American woods.

Many varieties of the pine, intermingled with birch, maple, beech, oak, and numerous other tribes, branch luxuriantly over the banks of lakes and rivers, extend in stately grandeur along the plains, and stretch proudly up to the very summits of the mountains.

It is impossible to exaggerate the autumnal beauty of the forests; nothing under heaven can be compared to its effulgent grandeur.

Two or three frosty nights in the decline of autumn transform the boundless verdure of a whole empire into every possible tint of brilliant scarlet, rich violet, every shade of blue and brown, vivid crimson, and glittering yellow. The stern, inexorable fir-tribes alone maintain their eternal sombre green; all others, in mountains, and in valleys, burst into the most glorious vegetable beauty, and exhibit the most splendid and most enchanting panorama on earth.

Amidst the American wilderness, we have often ascended one of those heights, from which the scope of vision ranges over the surface of boundless forests, varying in shades from the funeral hue of the firs, to the bright verdure and golden tinges of the birch, the yellow and brown shades of the beech, and the red and violet of the maple; from whence the imagination alone penetrates underneath the silent indomitable covert, amidst the intricacies of which, the traveler might wander into bewildered labyrinths, and forever lose his way, in perplexing ignorance of the course which would lead him back to civilization and to the human throng—from the coverts where the moose, cariboo and the bear have safely fed and roved, until pursued to gratify the desires, and until ensnared by the wiles of man.

Michaux describes fourteen species of *pine*, and there are probably more varieties. Pines do not often grow on fertile soils, at least not in groves; low, sandy and poor, but not strong lands, are most congenial to their growth.

The yellow long-leaved pine (*pinus strobus*) is the most gene-

rally useful; and the great bulk of the timber of commerce exported from America is of this kind. It grows in extensive forests in Canada and New-Brunswick, and grew formerly in great plenty in the old provinces, and in Prince Edward's Island, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton. It is a magnificent tree, frequently fifteen feet in circumference near the ground, free from branches for seventy or eighty feet, and often more than one hundred and twenty feet in height. Some trees, after being hewn square, and the limbs with twenty to thirty feet of the top cut off, have measured eight or nine tons, of forty solid feet each.

The pitch pine (*pinus Australis*), also long-leaved, is valuable on account of its durability, but more so from its producing turpentine and tar of America. It delights in higher ground than the yellow pine, and seldom exceeds six feet in circumference.

The red pine (*pinus Sylvestris*) is often a tall tree, but seldom more than four or five feet in girth. It is nearly the same in kind and quality as the fir imported into the United Kingdom from Norway, in square logs. Until this tree be sufficiently matured, or if it be in a situation where it grows rapidly, it contains a great proportion of sap wood; and it is only when this part is hewn away, that the red pine is durable. It is much used in ship building and many other purposes, but it is much more rare than any of the other pines. In many parts of Canada, and along some branches of the St. John, it has lately been discovered in extensive groves.

Hemlock spruce (*abies Canadensis*). There are two varieties of the hemlock, the red and white; both are very durable. The lath wood exported in billets from America, is principally hemlock. The red splits too freely, and is remarkably full of cracks, or, as Americans term it, shakey. The white is often apt to splinter, but it is close grained, hard, holds nails or tree nails well, and is used in colonial ship building. Its bark is used very generally in America for tanning. There is no wood better adapted for mining purposes or piles; and it is remarkable that iron driven into it, will not corrode either in or out of the water. Hemlock trees generally grow in dry hollows, in groves, and from two to three feet in diameter, and sixty to eighty feet high.

Five varieties of the spruce firs are abundant in all except the northmost regions; and the dwarf spruce creeps as far north as any tree. The black, gray, and white, and red spruce firs, called so from the color of their barks, are the same as those of Norway, imported into England for masts, yards, &c. These trees grow to a great height.

The black spruce (*pinus abies*) is frequently observed in the distance, like a black minaret, or spire, towering twenty or thirty feet above all other trees.

The spruce firs of rapid growth are not durable, but those growing in bleak situations, or near the sea coast, are hard and durable. The wood of the species is white.

The American silver fir (*abies balsamifera*) is that from which the transparent resin, known as the Canada balsam, is procured. This balsam is the best possible application to fresh wounds.

The Indians use it also for a remedy for several internal complaints.

The timber of this tree is seldom used in America, except for fencing rails.

The celebrated essence of spruce is extracted from the black spruce. When the branches are used to make beer, so common in America, merely by boiling them in water, and adding a few hops, and a certain portion of molasses, those of the dwarf trees are preferred.

The hacmatack or larch, (*pinus laryx*), called also in America the tamarac and juniper, is considered the most durable of the pine family. In some parts, but not generally, it is very plentiful. It attains frequently a great height, but rarely more than two feet in thickness. Its wood is heavy, tough, and becomes hard by seasoning. It burns with difficulty, and does not readily absorb water. In these respects hemlock resembles it most.

Both red cedar (*juniperus Virginiana*) and white cedar (*cupressus thyoides*) are met with in the north of Virginia and in New York, but not in abundance.

The former is found in Upper Canada, the latter in the lower provinces. The largest trees that we have seen, about three feet in diameter, were on the banks of the Buonaventura river, in the district of Gaspé, at which place the Arcadian French use the white cedar, in preference to other wood, for house and ship building. There are two or more varieties of it, one of which is called Canada cyprus: it is a beautiful ornamental tree. It has been successfully transplanted from Canada to France; and in the garden of the Petit Trianon, Versailles, there are two or three fine trees of this species.

The common juniper, which yields the berry used in the arts, and which takes two years in ripening, is found in most cold situations, where other trees seldom grow. A creeping variety of fir, called in America ground spruce, producing a delicious red berry, and on which cattle delight to browse, grows in many places in great plenty. It differs in its nature from all other varieties of firs, inasmuch as it thrives only in fertile soils.

The sugar maple (*acer saccharinum*) differs from the great maple, in its fibres being generally straight and coarser, its wood not being so hard or compact, and its sap granulating more perfectly. From

its juice, principally, is made the maple sugar; although all the varieties we know of, if we class them agreeably to the saccharine matter contained in their saps, might be called sugar maples.

The process of obtaining sugar from the sap of the maple, is simple. In the early part of March, at which time sharp frosty nights are usually followed by bright sunshiny days, the sap begins to run.

A small notch or incision, making an angle across the grain, is cut in the tree, out of which the juice oozes, and is conveyed by a thin slip of wood, let in at the lower end of the cut, to a wooden trough or dish, made of bark or wood, placed below on the ground.

The quantity of sap thus obtained from each tree varies from one pint to two gallons per day. Those who follow the business, fix on some spot where maples are most numerous, and erect a temporary camp or lodging. When they have as many trees tapped as can be attended to, the sap is collected once or twice a day, and carried to a large pot or boiler hung over a wood fire near the camp. It is then reduced, by boiling, until it granulates; and the sugar thus obtained is rich and pleasant to the taste. An agreeable syrup is also made of maple sap.

THE DEPTH AND SALTNESS OF THE OCEAN.

At the last annual meeting of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists, held at Boston in September last, a statement was presented, on the subject heading this notice, by Captain Wilkes, U. S. N., to whom the questions were referred at the last previous meeting of the Association.

The communication of Capt. Wilkes is given at length in the January number of Silliman's Journal. He said that with the depth of the ocean there were connected many interesting subjects of inquiry—among them, its actual depth, its mean temperature and density, the penetration of solar light, submarine currents, and the saltness and specific gravity of sea-water.

Although experiments to ascertain the depth of the ocean have been frequently made, we are as yet ignorant of its maximum depth, and continue to be satisfied with the conjectures and the results obtained from theory. These, as is well known, vary in the limit of depth from five to eight miles. The greatest depth to which the ocean has been penetrated is 4,600 fathoms, or 27,600 feet, [about five miles and a quarter;] no bottom was obtained. This was the result of an experiment by Captain Ross in lat. 15 deg. S. and 23

deg. W. longitude. Several experiments have been made at other points, and some with success; bottom being attained in apparent mid-ocean in between 12,000 and 18,000 feet [from two miles and nearly a third, to about three and two-thirds]. The ocean has been penetrated in too few places to afford any satisfactory or decisive results upon so interesting a subject; and, considering the vast space of our globe occupied by the great ocean, it cannot but strike every one what a wide field is open for investigation and experiment, and how many interesting geological results may be elicited and are connected with these experiments. Sufficient facts have been developed to prove that the inequalities of the level of the ocean's bed are much more remarkable than those of the land.

Capt. Wilkes proceeds to many interesting statements, but we can only give a brief summary. He remarks that, although the actual *depth* of the ocean has not yet been successfully determined, the numerous trials have resulted in determining satisfactorily its mean temperature and density. Its mean temperature is 39 deg. 5m., though often placed—among others, by M. Lenz—down to 36 deg. and 37 deg., which is reported as the temperature in the tropics at 1,000 fathoms, though without doubt navigators have here fallen into an error. Capt. W. expresses himself well satisfied that so low a temperature will not be obtained within the tropics at any depth, unless through the agency of sub-marine currents. According to Captain Ross's experiments, the zone of mean temperature lies between the parallels of 54 deg. and 60 deg. of south latitude; not only at the surface, but to as great a depth as the ocean has been penetrated. Future trials will in all probability reduce it to narrow limits; its position in the northern hemisphere remains yet to be ascertained. This mean temperature is met with both in the polar circles and in proceeding toward the equator. In the higher latitudes above 60 deg., the ocean in descending increases in temperature until it arrives at its mean point; while proceeding toward the equator it decreases from the surface downward—this decrease beyond the tropical circle, is about twenty-three fathoms for every degree of latitude; within the tropics it is 1 deg. for every thirteen fathoms of depth, until 400 fathoms, after which it requires a descent of from 200 to 300 fathoms to effect a like change.

From the observations of Admiral D'Urville, it would appear that the waters of the Mediterranean do not follow the rate of descent of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. He estimated the mean temperature of that sea below 200 fathoms, at 558, and this from the fact of his having obtained that temperature at the depth of 1,000 fathoms. If this be so, it leads to an interesting inquiry whether it may not be in consequence of the vast internal fires that are known to prevail in the countries that surround it.

The saltness and specific gravity of the sea have been frequently subjects of inquiry. The results of the Exploring Expedition will throw much light on this subject. The specimens of sea-water obtained in different latitudes were, on the return of the Expedition, placed in the hands of Dr. C. T. Jackson, of Boston—whose ability as a chemist is well known to the country; he has analyzed them, and, as it will yet be some time before the full result can be published in the volumes of the Expedition, Capt. Wilkes laid before the Association a sketch of Dr. Jackson's mode of analyzation of these specimens, together with a few of the results.

The curious will find these given at some length in the latest issue of Silliman's Journal.

Subsequently, at the same meeting, Professor Agassiz took occasion to express his opinion of the Expedition, and spoke of the results in the highest terms. He bore testimony to the beauty as well as accuracy of the engravings, acknowledging that they were not surpassed by any that had hitherto appeared in Europe. This, from so high an authority, is very complimentary to the various artistic corps attached to the Expedition.—*Tribune*.

THE BIBLE.

The following account of early English and Saxon versions of the sacred volume, will be found exceedingly interesting:—"That the gospel was preached in Britain so early as the close of the first century, is asserted by many learned historians. But there is no evidence of the existence of any ancient Briton version of the Bible: this, however, is accounted for by the fact that the Latin language was generally understood and spoken. Tacitus mentions, in his life of Agricola, that the Latin grammar was a necessary branch of a liberal education; and Gildas, the earliest British historian, observes that the Latin language was so generally used, that Britain might rather be called a Roman, than a British Island.

"The Saxons, at the time of their invasion of the island, were ignorant and bloody idolaters; but by degrees the religion of Christ, though not in its purest form, gained ground among them, bringing with it learning and the peaceful arts. In the 7th century, Cædmon, a monk, made a poetical version of some of the more remarkable passages of the Old Testament history. 'He sang,' says Bede, 'of the creation of the world, of the origin of the human race, the whole book of Genesis, Israel's egress from Egypt and entrance into Canaan, and many other parts of sacred story.' In the 8th century, Aldhelm, Bishop of Sherburn, and Guthlac, an anchorite, are reputed

to have made each of them a literal version of the Psalter; the former of these versions, according to Spelman, was lost before the times of Alfred the Great. Among the Cotton MSS., there is a very ancient Psalter in Latin and Saxon which Mr. Baber thinks was one of the books brought by Augustin into England; the Latin text bears the marks of Italian origin, but the author of the Saxon interlinear translation is unknown, though all agree in assigning to it a high antiquity.

“Venerable Bede gives an account of Aidan (A. D. 635), a Scottish Bishop, who fixed his see in Holy Island, and took care that all who traveled with him, whether clergy or laity, should spend a considerable part of their time in reading the Holy Scriptures; and the Saxon homilies exhort the people with great earnestness to the performance of the same duty, and enforce the advice by the great benefit resulting from the exercise. These facts clearly imply the existence of some versions at this early day, in the vulgar tongue, though most of them have perished—a circumstance no way surprising, when we consider the inevitable effects of those two memorable invasions of England by the Danes and the Normans.

“Bede, himself, amidst his numerous employments, was largely occupied in promoting the study and the reading of the Bible. Besides writing commentaries on most of the books of the Old and New Testaments, he translated a considerable portion of them into the Anglo-Saxon. Fox says he translated the whole Bible; according to others, his labors in this way were confined to the Psalms and the Gospel of John. He died in a most devout and pious manner, May 26th, 735. One of the best acts of his life was the translation of the Gospel of John into Saxon. Having been confined for some weeks by sickness, during which he had been employed on the translation, and death now seizing him, his amanuensis said, ‘My beloved master, there is but one sentence unwritten.’ ‘Write it, then, quickly,’ replied the dying Bede, and summoning up all his energies, he indited it, and—expired.

“Eadfrid, Bishop of Lindisfarm, and cotemporary of Bede, is supposed by some writers to have made a Saxon version of the gospel; but Mr. Bulwer says this is a mistake, which has probably arisen from his having translated the gospels into Latin, to which a Saxon interlinear translation was added by a later hand. This book is known as the *Durham Book*, and is one of the finest specimens of Saxon caligraphy and decoration extant.

“The Anglo-Saxon version of the gospels, which lay the next claim to antiquity, is called the *Rushworth Glow*; and, like the one just mentioned, contains both Latin and Saxon versions; it is assigned to the 10th century. At the end of Matthew’s Gospel, we are told that ‘Farmen Presbyter thas hue thus gleosode;’ and at the end

of the volume, 'the min burche gibidde for Own the thas boe gleosode Farmen thaem piæost aet Harawada.' Besides the above, there are a few other Saxon versions of the Gospels, whose ages and authors are unknown. We shall only observe respecting these versions, that they appear to have been made, not from the Vulgate, but the Old Italic.

"It has been often said that Alfred the Great translated the whole Bible; he prefixed to his body of laws a translation of a few chapters of Exodus, and in his age began a version of the Psalms, which he did not live to finish; according to Mr. Baber, there is no evidence of his having done more.

"Of the early Saxon scholars, the first one who attempted to give his countrymen the Old Testament in their own tongue, was Elfric, a monk of the 10th century. This version, which embraced only the historical books, was published in 1698. In consequence of the disturbed state of the kingdom, produced by incursions of the Danes, and the conquest by the Normans, Saxon literature gradually declined, and we may date its fall to about one hundred years after the conquest, when the language had become so far changed as to have assumed that form which entitles it to the appellation of English. The following extract from the oldest English Psalter, will serve to show the state of our language in the 11th century: it is from Psalm 100.

"Mirthes to God al erthe that es
Sowes to louerd in faines
In go yhe ai in his siht
In gladnes that is so bright.

"Whites that louerd God is he thus
He us made and ourself noht us
Ais folk and shep of his fode,
In gos his yhates that are gode."

"The first *literal* English translation of any part of Holy Writ was made towards the middle of the 14th century, by Richard Rolle, who, however, translated only the Psalter; the versio princeps of the Psalms in English. In the preface, the author says, 'in this work seke no stranger Ynglis, but lightest and communest, and swilk that is most like unto the Latyne, so that thai that knows not the Latyne be the Ynglys may come to many Latyne words.'

"But to John Wiclif, 'the morning star of the Reformation,' belongs the honor of having made the first complete English version of the Holy Bible. This translation was made from the vulgar Latin, about the year 1380. We shall conclude this article with brief specimen of Wiclif's version of the Lord's Prayer. "Our fader that art in hevenys; halewid be thi namv; thy kyngdom come to, be thy wil done in erthe as in hevене. Give us this day

our breed ovir other substance. And forgive to us our dettis as we forgiven to our dettouris. And lede us not into temptation; but delyvere us from yvil, amen.”

Extract from a letter of John Quincy Adams to his son, on the Bible and its teachings.

“I have already observed that the great immovable and eternal foundation of the superiority of Scripture morals to all other morality, was the idea of God disclosed in them, and only in them; the unity of God, his omnipotence, his righteousness, his mercy, and the infinity of his attributes, are marked in every line of the Old Testament in characters which nothing less than blindness can fail to discern, and nothing less than fraud can misrepresent. This conception of God serving as a basis for the piety of his worshipers, was of course incomparably more rational and more profound, than it was possible that sentiment could be which adored devils for deities, or even that of philosophers like Socrates, Plato and Cicero, who, with purer and more exalted ideas of the divine nature than the rabble of the poets, still considered the existence of any God at all as a question upon which they could form no decided opinion. You have seen that even Cicero believed the only solid foundation of all human virtue to be piety; and it was impossible that a piety so far transcending that of all other nations, should not contain, in its consequences, a system of moral virtue equally transcendent.—The first of the Ten Commandments was, that the Jewish people should never admit the idea of any other God—the object of the second, third and fourth was merely to impress with greater force the obligation of the first, and to obviate the tendencies and temptations which might arise from its being neglected or disregarded. Throughout the whole law the same injunctions are continually renewed; all the rites and ceremonies were adapted to root deeper into the hearts and souls of the chosen people, that the Lord Jehovah was to be forever the sole and exclusive object of love. Reverence and adoration, unbounded as his own nature, was the principle; every letter of the law, and the whole Bible, is but a commentary upon it, and a corollary from it. The law was given not merely in the form of a commandment from God, but in that of a covenant or compact between the Supreme Creator and the Jewish people; it was sanctioned by the blessing and the curse pronounced upon Mount Gerizim and Mount Ebal, in the presence of the whole Jewish people and strangers, and by the solemn acceptance of the whole people, responding amen to every one of the curses denounced for violation on their part of the covenant. From that day until the birth of Christ, (a period of about 1,500 years,) the historical books of the Old Testa-

ment are no more than a simple record of the fulfilment of the covenant, in all its blessings and curses, exactly adapted to the fulfilment or transgression of its duties by the people. The nation was first governed by Joshua, under the express appointment of God; then by a succession of judges, and afterward by a double line of kings, until conquered and carried into captivity by the kings of Assyria and Babylon; seventy years afterward restored to their country, their temple and their laws; and again conquered by the Romans, and ruled by their tributary kings and proconsuls. Yet, through all their vicissitudes of fortune, they never complied with the duties to which they had bound themselves by the covenant, without being loaded with the blessing promised on Mount Gerizim, and never departed from them without being afflicted with some of the curses denounced upon Mount Ebal. The prophetic books are themselves historical—for prophecy, in the strictest sense, is no more than history related before the event; but the Jewish prophets (of whom there was a succession, almost constant, from the time of Joshua to that of Christ), were messengers, specially commissioned of God, to warn the people of their duty, to foretell the punishments which awaited their transgressions, and, finally, to keep alive, by uninterrupted prediction, the expectation of the Messiah, ‘the seed of Abraham, in whom all the families of the earth should be blessed.’”

Extract from a Speech of the Earl of Liverpool on the Distribution of the Bible, and its value.

He had no hesitation in avowing that the object of the Bible Society was in perfect accordance with his principles.—If, for a moment, he could consider the principles or the proceedings of that society as hostile to the religion of his country, as by law established, he would be the last man in the kingdom to yield it his support; but believing as he did, that the labors of the Bible Society tended to promote Christianity in general throughout the world, and ultimately the pure principles of the Church of England, he felt it his duty to promote its success by all the means in his power.

As a member of the Established Church, he felt it his duty to support that establishment, and he should be most happy if the liturgy of the church could always be circulated together with the Bible, because it was his sincere opinion that the liturgy of the Church of England was the best of all human compositions; but were there not circumstances which rendered the attainment of such an object absolutely impracticable? The operation of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was limited: the Bible may be circulated where the prayer-book will not be received. Among all sects and descriptions of persons in Great Britain, the Bible may be

circulated; and should we withhold the Scriptures from any part of our fellow subjects, because they are not at this time prepared to receive the prayer-book, which is founded upon them?

In Ireland, (whatever difference of opinion may exist elsewhere, as to the state and condition of that part of the United Kingdom,) it is quite clear that religious prejudices must, in most cases, prevent the prayer-book being received with the Bible; and shall we forego the advantage of circulating the word of God among all classes and all sects in that country, giving them an opportunity of forming their conscientious opinions on the Bible; and thereby affording, perhaps, hereafter the most simple and effectual remedy to those evils which we all equally deplore? The principles of this society adapt it, indeed, to convey the word of life to the whole world. Britons have a duty, an important duty to perform, arising out of their extensive colonies and foreign possessions. As Christians, we ought to deplore that this duty has been so long neglected; but surely he might now appeal to them as Christians and as Protestants, whether they would neglect the advantages of such an instrument, in promoting the circulation of the Scriptures throughout the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain?

The Bible Society was now no longer a theory. It had been in practical operation for a period of more than seventeen years, and so far from injuring other societies, which had the same object in view, it had been proved that it has materially benefited them, and by its exertions the Scriptures had been translated into numerous languages, with the *names* even of some of which we were scarcely acquainted.

If, upon so solemn and important a subject, it could be allowed to feel *pride*, he should say that he felt a national pride that so extensive, so benevolent an institution, which conveyed the best of blessings to every nation and people, had originated in this country. It was a duty we owed to God, who had so benefited this country, by bestowing upon us such innumerable and unparalleled blessings, who enabled us so lately to weather the storm, which had so long hovered over us,—to surmount the difficulties of one of the most momentous periods in our history, and who had crowned the nation with a glorious peace—it was a duty, he said, we owed to divine Providence, to make all mankind feel that, in acknowledging the favors Heaven has so bountifully conferred upon us, we were anxious to convey to them the greatest blessing Heaven can bestow, by circulating as extensively as possible *the word of eternal life*.

THE COST OF VICTORY.

In order to form some idea of the waste of human life in battle, and the price of martial glory, we give the annexed table, which may be safely assumed as containing only about one-third of the actual destruction of life sustained during the Mexican campaigns, if we include in the account disease and casualties.

The subjoined table was prepared in the Adjutant-General's office, and furnishes a list of the losses sustained by our army since the commencement of the war:—

AFFAIR OR BATTLE.	Forces engaged.		Number of killed.		Wounded.
	Americans— regulars and volunteers.	Mexicans.	Americans— regulars and volunteers.	Mexicans.	Americans— regulars and volunteers.
1. Detachment under Captain Thornton, 2d dragoons, in a reconnoissance on the Rio Grande, above Fort Brown, Texas, . . .	63	200	10	unknown	6
2. Detachment of Capt. Walker's Texan Rangers, near Point Isabel,	30	100	10	unknown	—
3. Fort Brown,	750	4000	2	unknown	10
4. Palo Alto,	2300	6000	4	100	42
5. Resaca de la Palma, . . .	1700	6500	36	200	98
6. Monterey,	6645	10,000	120	700	368
7. San Pasqual, Upper California,	110	160	19	unknown	15
8. Brazito, New Mexico, . . .	500	1220	—	*209	7
9. Los Angeles, California, .	500	600	1	*80	14
10. La Canada, New Mexico, .	350	1500	2	36	6
11. Mora, New Mexico,	—	—	1	—	3
12. El Embudo,	500	700	—	20	1
13. Pueblo de Taos,	300	800	6	150	49
14. Buena Vista,	4759	20,000	267	*1500	408
15. Sacramento,	900	4000	—	*600	5
16. Vera Cruz,	11,000	5500	12	*500	51
17. Cerro Gordo,	8500	12,000	87	*1200	353
18. Calaboso, California, De Russey,	126	1500	15	200	13
19. Contreras,					
20. San Antonio, }	8497	32,000	164	*4000	865
21. Churubusco, }					
22. On Major Lally's march, .	1200	2000	9	unknown	74
23. Molino del Rey,	3251	14,000	201	*3000	581

* Killed and wounded.

24. Chapultepec,	7180	25,000	178	unknown	673
25. Attack on Puebla,	1400	8000	18	unknown	53
26. Huamantla,	1789	4000	14	161	11
27. General Lane, Puebla,	3100	4200	—	—	—
28. Atlixco,	1500	2000	1	219	2
Total,	—	—	1177	12,866	3669

The above is complete as far as it goes. No account is given of the losses sustained in guerilla fights, skirmishes, &c., which must have been severe; neither is there any list furnished of the number of deaths by sickness, &c. &c., which must amount to thousands.

As appropriate to this subject, we subjoin *an extract from a speech delivered by General Pierce of New Hampshire*, a distinguished soldier, on his return home, after the bloody battles in Mexico.

When officers and men fought with such obstinate bravery, and rushed with such reckless daring to obtain the victory, we wonder no longer that the victory was gained, nor at the price of human life which purchased it.

“New Hampshire,” said General Pierce, “had no occasion for any other feeling than that of pride in regard to her sons who belonged to the command. They had proved themselves brave, devoted, self-sacrificing spirits. And Concord, too, was well represented among them. There was Henry Caldwell—one of the bravest and most determined soldiers in the army. There was Sergeant Stowell, who was shot plump through the heart at Churubusco. As his last breath flowed, he whispered to me—‘Do the boys say I behave well? If I have, write home to my people.’ Then there was Sergeant Pike, who had his leg shot off in advancing along on a causeway swept by three batteries. Two amputations, which did not answer the purpose, were performed, and a third was deemed hopeless. Die he must, it was thought. ‘I know better than they do,’ he said; ‘I’ll try another; and when they cut it again, I hope they will cut it so that it will stay cut.’ A third amputation was performed, and he lived through it. He, and the others named, were printers. In the new levies, the printers exceed by twenty per cent. those of any other vocation; and on account of their intelligence and high spirit, they have proved the most efficient soldiers in the field.

“Another cause of the success of our troops, new and old, was the conduct of the officers, who, from the highest to the lowest, led and cheered on their columns. Hence the disproportion in the loss of officers and men. Hence the loss of that most brave and accomplished of the officers of the ten new regiments—Colonel Ransom. He kept pressing—pressing up—till he was shot dead at the head

of his column. The same was true of Colonel Martin Scott, the first shot in the army—a son of New Hampshire. He raised himself above the protection of a wall. A brother officer begged him not to expose himself unnecessarily. He replied—‘Martin Scott has never yet stooped.’ The next moment a shot passed through his heart. He fell upon his back, deliberately placed his cap upon his breast, and died. Colonel Graham, after receiving six severe wounds, continued on at the head of his men, and upon receiving a seventh through his heart, slowly dropped from his horse; and, as he fell upon the ground, said—‘Forward, my men!—my word is always—forward.’ And so saying, he died. Having referred to Lieutenants Foster and Daniels, and to several officers of the old army, General Pierce proceeded to say he had to retract opinions he had formerly entertained and expressed in relation to the military academy at West Point. He was now of opinion that the city of Mexico could not have been entered in the way it was, but for the science and intelligence in military affairs of the officers of the old army, mostly from West Point. Services were rendered by the officers of the topographical engineers and ordnance, which could not have been rendered but by men who had received the most complete military education. The force of the Americans had been overrated. Over 7,500 effective men left Puebla to attack a city of 250,500 inhabitants, defended by 35,000 of the best troops ever raised in Mexico, 100 pieces of cannon, and the finest fortifications ever raised, in addition to the natural defences of marshes and lakes.”

THE ROTHSCHILDS.

The following account of the origin and progress of the house of Rothschild will be found interesting. It will be recollected that Baron Rothschild, resident in London, has recently been elected a member of parliament; and a change in the English constitution being necessary to admit a Jew to legislative honors and privileges, the necessary amendment was made. Recently, the English were compelled to yield the legal restrictions on the issue of the Bank of England, because the Baron Rothschild threatened to withdraw his deposits unless the Ministry changed the law; and again the Saxon was compelled to yield to the Jew.

In the year 1740, in a little Jewish settlement in Frankfort-on-the-Maine, dwelt a family of poor, but respectable Jew peddlers, and in that year they were blessed with a son whom they called Mayer Anselm Rothschild. They gave him what education their small

means would permit, but, dying when he was at the age of eleven, left him to his own resources. He then earned a scanty living by writing, which he soon abandoned for a trade. But his ambition was to be a priest of his religion. Fortunately for tottering dynasties of the present day, this was not accomplished. His trade required him to travel; and after some years he returned to his native place, and established a small business. He soon, however, gained considerable notoriety as a collector of old and curious coins, which brought him much in contact with persons of rank, among whom it was fashionable to make such collections; and finally he went to Hanover, as a clerk in a large house. Subsequently, with a few years' savings, he returned to Frankfort, married, and commenced a little exchange business. His great sagacity, strict punctuality, and rectitude of conduct, pushed him rapidly forward, and towards the close of the century the Frankfort banking house had become famous, and the profits large. The banker in the meantime brought up ten children, of whom five sons were "after his own heart;" and when he died, he left them his vast wealth and extensive business, with the injunction to dwell in strict and unbroken unity. And the injunction then bestowed has been faithfully carried out. The five sons conducted as many banking houses at the leading capitals of Europe. They were as follows: the eldest, Anselm, was born in 1773, and was the most substantial citizen of Frankfort; and, representing the father, was the head of the whole operations of the house. The second, Solomon, born in 1774, became a citizen of Vienna, where he is held in high estimation as a man, as well as a member of the most stupendous banking house in the world. The fourth son, Charles, was born in 1788, and has, since 1821, conducted the house at Naples, where his popularity is equal to any of his brothers. The youngest son, Jacob, was born in 1792, and is the banker for Paris, where he maintains a splendor that eclipses most of the princes of Europe. The third son we have yet to mention, Nathan, who was born in 1777, and became the head of the London house in 1798, and was in every intellectual respect a giant. It was observed of him that, should he share in the chase, it could only be to hunt elephants.

These five houses, combining all the financial resources of Europe in their movements, which are always simultaneous, have exercised for fifty years a power unseen, but overwhelming. Nearly all the government debts of Europe are of their contracting. Through the wars of Bonaparte their information was always correct, and always in advance of the British government, which was often a dependent upon them for information, as well as means of action. Although their residences were always widely separated, each controlling all means of information, no important transaction was entered into

without consultation and strict harmony of opinion among them all. Commercial exchanges and all movements of business were often known to and controlled by the old Jew in Frankfort, who could, in the exercise of his great power, look with contempt upon feeble despots crying to him for help; and the aid asked depended on the assent of the five brothers. Accordingly they were courted in every possible way. In 1813, they were made private commercial counsellors to the Hessian government; also to the Austrian Emperor, who conferred on them the rank of *Barons*. In 1836, Nathan died, leaving 63,000,000*l.* and seven children, of whom four were sons. The eldest, Lionel, who had been made Knight of Isabella by the Catholics at Madrid, and who is a Baron of Austria in right of his father, appeared, in 1836, on the London Change in the place his father had occupied for thirty-eight years. This gentleman it is who has become a member of Parliament at the expense of a change in the English Constitution.

The house combined has loaned the King of the French the money necessary to keep him on the throne a few years longer. It is manifest that as this house has grown up with government debts, the continuance of their power is in some degree dependent upon existing governments. A branch of the house has been established in New York, conducted by Auguste Belmont, a relative of Solomon Rothschild, of Vienna. Republican free trade, however, is not the soil on which the stupendous business of the great loan contractor will best flourish.

NAPOLEON'S PROPHECY.

We are not disposed to treat modern prophets or their prophecies with much consideration. It happens occasionally, that things which are predicted actually occur, and when this is the case, ignorant individuals incline to a belief in the power of some men to foretell events. The following, however, is a remarkable prophecy of Napoleon, being a suppressed passage from both the French and English editions of Count Las Casas's Journal, and which has been furnished us by a literary gentleman of eminence:—"In less than fifteen years from the present time," said the Emperor Napoleon to me, one day, as we stood viewing the sea, from a rock which overhangs the road, "the whole European system will be changed. Revolution will succeed revolution, until every nation becomes acquainted with its individual rights. Depend upon it, the people of Europe will not long submit to be governed by these bands of petty sovereigns, these aristocratic

cabinets. I was wrong in re-establishing the order of nobles in France. But I did it, to give splendor to the throne and refinement to the manners of the people, who were fast sinking into barbarism, since the Revolution. The remains of the feudal system will vanish before the sun of knowledge. The people have only to know, that all power emanates from themselves, in order to assert their rights to a share in their respective governments. This will be the case even with the boors of Russia. Yes, Las Casas, you may live to see the time, but I shall be cold in my grave, when that colossal but ill-cemented empire will be split into as many sovereignties, perhaps republics, as there are hordes or tribes which compose it."

After a few more reflections on the future prospects of Europe, his majesty thus continued: "Never was a web more artfully woven over a nation than that horrible debt which enslaves the people of England. It has been the means of enriching the aristocracy beyond all former example in any country, whilst it has, at the same time, insured as many fast and powerful friends to the government, as there are individuals who receive interest for that money so extravagantly squandered to crush liberty in other countries. Even that must have an end; some accidental spark will ignite the combustible mass, and blow the whole system to the devil. If this mighty debt were due to foreigners, those cunning islanders would not bear the burden an hour, but would, on some pretext or other, break with their creditors, and laugh at their credulity; but they owe the money to individuals among themselves, and are, therefore, likely to enjoy the pleasure of paying the interest for some generations to come. France, too, has a debt. These Bourbons think to maintain themselves on my throne, by borrowing largely of the present generation, in order to lay heavy taxes on the next, and all future ones. But I know the French people too well to suppose that such a system can be long tolerated. I know that they have too much natural affection for their offspring to entail upon them a national debt like that of England, however artfully incurred. No! no! my subjects are too sharp-sighted, to let the property accumulated for their children be mortgaged to pay the Russians and English for invading them, and for the restoration of the '*vieille cour des imbéciles*' who now insult them. They will, after a time, make comparisons between them and me, they will recollect that the expenses of my government were defrayed by imposts during the year—that my wars cost France nothing—that I left her not one Napoleon in debt, but that I enriched every corner of her territory. Such comparisons will not be favorable to the Bourbons. The French will cast them and their debt from their shoulders, as my Arabian would any stranger who should dare to mount him. Then, if my son be in existence, he will be seated on the throne amidst the acclamations of the people. If he

be not, France will go back to a Republic, for no other hand will dare to seize a sceptre which it cannot wield. The Orleans branch, though amiable, are too weak, have too much of the other Bourbons, and will share the same fate, if they do not choose to live as simple citizens under whatever change takes place." Here the Emperor paused a few moments; then waving his hand, he exclaimed in an animated tone, his dark eye beaming with the enthusiasm of inspiration, "France once more a Republic, other countries will follow her example—Germans, Prussians, Poles, Italians, Danes, Swedes and Russians, will all join in the crusade for liberty. They will arm against their sovereigns, who will be glad to make concessions of some of their minor rights in order to preserve a minor authority over them as subjects; they will grant them Representative Chambers, and style themselves Constitutional Kings possessing a limited power. Thus the feudal system will receive its death-blow—like the thick mist on that ocean, it will dissipate at the first appearance of the sun of liberty. But things will not end there; the wheel of revolution will not stand still at this point; the impetus will be increased in a ten-fold ratio, and the motion will be accelerated in proportion. When a people recover a part of their rights as men, they become elated with the victory they have achieved, and having tasted the sweets of freedom, they become clamorous for a larger portion. Thus will the states and principalities of Europe be in a continual state of turmoil and ferment, perhaps, for some years—like the earth, heaving in all directions, previous to the occurrence of an earthquake. At length the combustible matter will have vent; a tremendous explosion will take place. The lava of England's bankruptcy will overspread the European world, overwhelming kings and aristocracies, but cementing the democratic interest as it flows. Trust me, Las Casas, that, as from the vines planted in the soil which encrusts the sides of Etna and Vesuvius, the most delicious wine is obtained, so shall the lava of which I speak prove to be the only soil in which the tree of liberty will take firm and permanent root. May it flourish for ages! You, perhaps, consider these sentiments strange and unusual; they are mine, however. I was a Republican, but fate and the opposition of Europe made me an Emperor. I am now a spectator of the future!"—*English Paper.*

The electric current, as near as can be ascertained, travels at the rate of 288,000 miles per second.

EXTRAORDINARY INDIAN CITY.

The New Orleans National, in its sketch of Col. Doniphan's late remarkable expedition, gives the following account :

The Navajo Indians are a warlike people, have no towns or houses or lodges; they live in the open air or on horseback, and are remarkably wealthy, having immense herds of horses, cattle, and sheep. They are celebrated for their intelligence and good order. They treat their women with great attention, consider them equals, and relieve them from the drudgery of menial work. They are handsome, well made, and in every respect a highly civilized people, being, as a nation, of a higher order of beings than the mass of their neighbors, the Mexicans. About the time Col. Doniphan made his treaty, a division of his command was entirely out of provisions, and the Navajos supplied its wants with liberality. A portion of the command returned to Cuvano. Maj. Gilpin's command, together with Col. Doniphan, went to the city of the Sumai Indians living on the Rio Pesco, which is supposed to be a branch of the Geyla, made a treaty of peace between the Sumais and Navajos, and then returned to the Rio Del Norte.

These Sumais, unlike the Navajos, live in a city, containing, probably, 6,000 inhabitants, who support themselves entirely by agriculture.

The city is one of the most extraordinary in the world. It is divided into four solid squares, having but two streets crossing its centre at right angles. All the buildings are two story high, composed of sun burnt brick. The first story presents a solid wall to the street, and is so constructed that each house joins, until one fourth of the city may be said to be one building. The second stories rise from this vast solid structure, so as to designate each house, leaving room to walk upon the roof of the first story between each building. The inhabitants of Sumai enter the second story of their buildings by ladders, which they draw up at night, as a defence against any enemy that might be prowling about. In this city were seen some thirty Albino Indians, who have, no doubt, given rise to the story that there is living in the Rocky mountains a tribe of white aborigines. The discovery of this city of the Sumai will afford the most curious speculations among those who have so long searched in vain for a city of the Indians who possessed the manners and habits of the Aztecs. No doubt, we have here a race living as did that people, when Cortez entered Mexico. It is a remarkable fact that the Sumaians have, since the Spaniards left the country, refused to have any intercourse with the modern Mexicans, looking upon them as an inferior people. They have also

driven from among them the priests and other dignitaries, who formerly had power over them, and resumed habits and manners of their own, their Great Chief, or Governor, being the civil and religious head. The country around the city of Sumai is cultivated with a great deal of care, and affords food not only for the inhabitants, but for large flocks of cattle and sheep.

THE OLD WORLD.

The Monarchs of Europe. Territory and Population.—The excitement in the Old World, the revolutions, the reforms, and the threatening aspect of affairs at our last accounts, have induced many inquiries as to the names and ages of the reigning sovereigns, the extent and population of their various governments. We have therefore turned to the latest authorities, and gather the following:—

Great Britain—Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, was born May 24, 1819. Ascended the throne June 20, 1837, at the age of 18. Government, limited monarchy, with two houses of Parliament. Population, 26,831,105. Territory, 116,700 square miles. Religion, Protestant.

France—Louis Philippe, late King of France, was born Oct. 6, 1773. He ascended the throne Aug. 9, 1830, aged 57. Government, late limited monarchy, now a republic. Population, 34,194,875. Territory, 202,135 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia, was born July 6, 1796. He ascended the throne Dec. 1, 1825, aged 29. The government is an absolute monarchy, the territory 2,041,809 square miles, and the population (including Poland) 62,500,000. Religion, Greek Church.

Frederick William IV., King of Prussia, was born Oct. 15, 1795. He ascended the throne June 7, 1840, aged 45. The government has heretofore been an absolute monarchy, with a population of 14,330,000. Territory, 106,302 square miles. Religion, Protestant.

Ferdinand, Emperor of Austria, was born April 19, 1793, and ascended the throne March 2, 1835, aged 42. The government has heretofore been an absolute monarchy, except Hungary, &c., with a population of 36,519,560. Square miles, 255,256. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Louis, the King of Bavaria, was born August 25, 1786, ascended the throne October 13, 1825, at the age of 39. The kingdom is a limited monarchy, with two chambers; the population 4,315,469.

Territory, 28,435 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic. (Has abdicated. His son Maximilian is king.)

Oscar I., King of Sweden and Norway, was born in July, 1799. He ascended the throne March 8, 1844, aged 45. Government, limited monarchy, with a Diet. Population, 4,156,900. Religion, Lutheran.

Christian VIII., King of Denmark, was born September 18, 1786. He ascended the throne December 3, 1839, aged 59. Government, absolute monarchy. Population, 2,033,265. Territory, 59,762 square miles. Religion, Protestant.

William II., King of Holland, or Netherlands, was born December 6, 1792. Ascended the throne October 7, 1840, at the age of 48. Government, limited monarchy, with two chambers. Population, 2,915,369. Territory, 13,890 square miles. Religion, Reformed.

Leopold I., King of Belgium, was born December 16, 1790. He ascended the throne July 31, 1831, at the age of 40. Limited monarchy, with two chambers. Population, 4,242,600. Territory, 12,569 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Frederick, King of Saxony, was born May 18, 1797. Ascended the throne June 6, 1836, aged 39. Government, limited monarchy, with two chambers. Population, 1,652,114. Territory, 5,705 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Ernest Augustus, King of Hanover, born June 5, 1771. Ascended the throne July 20, 1837, aged 66. Government, limited monarchy, with two chambers. Population, 1,706,280. Territory, 14,600 square miles.

William, King of Wurtemberg, was born September 27, 1781. He ascended the throne October 30, 1816, at the age of 35. Government, limited monarchy, with two chambers. Population, 1,634,654. Territory, 7,568 square miles.

There are, besides, 26 other German Principalities, Grand Duchies, Landgravines, Electorates, &c., some in the form of absolute, and others of limited, monarchies. There are also in Germany, Bremen, Hamburg, Frankfort, Lubec, free cities, which are separate and republican.

Isabella II., Queen of Spain, was born Oct. 10, 1830. She ascended the throne Sept. 29th, 1833, aged 3 years. The government is a limited monarchy, with a legislature (the Cortes). The population is 12,286,941. Territory, 176,480 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Maria II., Queen of Portugal, was born April 4, 1819. Ascended the throne May 2, 1826, aged 7 years. Government, limited monarchy, with one chamber. Population, 3,550,000. Territory, 34,500. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Switzerland is a Republic, with a Diet. Population, 2,135,480.

Territory, 17,208 square miles. Religions, Roman Catholic and Protestant.

Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, born October 2d, 1798, ascended the throne April 27, 1831, aged 32. Government, absolute monarchy. Population, 4,168,000. Territory, 28,830 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Leopold II., Grand Duke of Tuscany, born October 3, 1797, ascended the throne June 18, 1824, aged 26. Government, absolute. Population, 1,436,785. Territory, 8,302 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

Pius IX., Pope of Rome, is the temporal sovereign of the States of the Church. Born Dec. 23, 1792. Was elected by the College of Cardinals, June 21, 1846, at the age of 54. Elective sovereignty. Population, 2,732,436. Territory, 17,048 square miles.

Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies, born January 12, 1810, ascended the throne November 8th, 1830, at the age of 20. Government, limited monarchy, with a council. Population, 7,975,850. Territory, 41,531 square miles. Religion, Roman Catholic.

There are also Duchies in Italy—Parma, Modena and Massa Carrara, and the principality of Monaco. Neither should we forget the small Republic of San Marino, in Italy, with 7,000 inhabitants—that of Andorra, in the Pyrenees, with 15,000 inhabitants—and that of the Ionian Islands, with 208,100 inhabitants, in the Mediterranean, under British protection.

Otho, King of Greece, was born June 1, 1815. He ascended the throne May 7, 1832, aged 17. The government is a limited monarchy; the population 926,000. Territory, 10,206 square miles. Religion, Greek Church.

Abdul Medjid, the Sultan of Turkey, was born April 20, 1823. He ascended the throne July 1, 1839, aged 16. Absolute monarchy. Population, 9,545,000. Territory, 183,140 square miles. Religion, Mohammedan.

The foregoing outline possesses unusual interest at the present time, and will be found useful as a matter of reference.

National Gazette.

THE PARTISAN.

A SKETCH FROM THE SOUTHERN STATES.

The exploits of Fannon, the partisan of Randolph, would make a body of facts more interesting than any tale of fiction. He was a reckless fellow—bloody-minded as the hounds of Hayti. But he had that instinctive tone and bearing of authority that kept his people within the metes and bounds of his own despotic will. He and his party were one day resting themselves by a spring; lounging here and there on the green grass in the shade of the trees. One of his subordinates, a big strong man, had got mad with him. His rage had been boiling in him for several days; and some fresh affront at the spring caused his anger to become ungovernable—he drew his sword and rushed at his captain, swearing he would kill him. Fannon had stretched his slight form on the sward, and was resting with his elbow on the ground, and his hand under his head. His devoted followers were around him, and he heard the click of their locks as they cocked their rifles. “Let him alone!” cried Fannon, in his quick sharp tone. He lay still; calm and self-possessed, with his keen dark eyes fixed on the raging lieutenant, as he made a tremendous plunge at his breast. But when the stroke came, its object swerved away like a snake, and the baffled man plunged his sword into the ground. Quick as lightning, Fannon’s sharp blade passed through his gigantic frame—“*Thus, and thus, I punish those who disregard my authority!*” and his eyes glowed and sparkled like a serpent’s. The man sank to the earth forever.

Achilles had his Xanthus; Alexander had his Bucephalus; M’Donald had his Selim. Fannon was a man of blood like them, and like them he had his favorite and trusty charger; and Fannon’s mare was worthy of her owner, or “even a better man.” He called her the Red Doe, from her resemblance in color to a deer. She was a rare animal—fleet, powerful, intelligent, and docile as a lamb—and her owner valued her, I dare say, above king or country, or the life of his fellow man. She bore him proudly and fearlessly in the bloody skirmish or the quick retreat. When he stood in the noisy councils of his partisans, or in the silent ambushade, the faithful brute was by his side, ever ready to bear him whithersoever he would.

Down on the east side of Little River, the partisan, and some four or five of his followers, one day captured a man by the name of Hunter, a political opponent, from the country about Salisbury. This was sufficient cause of death, and Fannon told the man that

he would hang him. Hunter was evidently *a man of the time*; but what could he do, alone and defenceless, with a dozen bitter enemies? It was a case of complete desperation. The rope was ready, and a strong old oak threw out its convenient branches. Fannon told him that he might pray, for his time had come! The poor man knelt down, and seemed absorbed in his last petition to a throne of mercy. Fannon and his men stood by, and the trusty mare stood among them with the reins on her neck. They began to be impatient for the victim to finish his devotional exercises. But they soon discovered that there was more hope of earth than heaven in Hunter's thoughts; for he suddenly sprang on Fannon's mare, bowed his head down on her powerful neck, pressed his heels on her flanks, and darted away like the wind.

The rifles were levelled in a moment—"Shoot high! Shoot high!" cried Fannon; "save my mare." The slugs all whistled over Hunter's back, save one that told with unerring aim, which tore and battered his shoulder dreadfully. He reeled on the saddle and felt sick at heart, but hope was before him, death behind, and he nerved himself for the race. On he sped. Through woods, ravines, and brambles, did that powerful mare carry him, safely and swiftly. His enemies were in hot pursuit. They followed him by the trail of blood from his wounded shoulder. He came to Little River; there was no ford; the bank was high, and a deep place in the stream before him. But the foe came—he drew the rein and clapped his heels to her sides, and that gallant mare plunged recklessly into the stream. She snorted as she rose in the spray, pawed the yielding wave, arched her beautiful mane above the surface, and skimmed along like a wild swan. Hunter turned her down stream in the hope of evading his pursuers; and she reared and dashed through the flashing water of the shoal, like lightning in the storm-cloud.

But Fannon was on the trail, and rushing down the bank with all the mad energy that the loss of his favorite could inspire. Hunter turned the mare to the opposite bank; it was steep—several feet of perpendicular rock—but she planted herself on the shore at a bound; and then flew over the interminable forest of pines, straight and swift as an arrow—that admirable mare!

On and on did that generous brute bear her master's foeman, till the pursuers were left hopelessly behind. Late in the evening Hunter rode into Salisbury, had the slug extracted from his shoulder, and after lingering some time from the effects of the wound and excitement, finally got well. And that gallant mare, that had done him such good service, he kept and cherished till she died of old age.—*From the Southern Citizen.*

REFINEMENT.

The following eloquent and just remarks are from the address of the Hon. J. R. Ingersoll, of Philadelphia, delivered before the Societies of the University of Georgia.

“Refinement might, therefore, well direct a primary and more than preparatory effort, without abatement of dignity or wasting attention on trivial things, to *external manners* as an efficient means of general accomplishment; rather, perhaps, we should say, to *manner*—for the term is intended to embrace not merely a disciplined carriage of the limbs in the formal intercourse of society, but everything that under the name of conduct or deportment, is superhuman to intrinsic merit, and is employed in making merit the more available.—It comprehends, for example, in language, however exalted or however humble may be the occasion for its use, a clear style, and distinct and attractive, though unaffected utterance; in the developments of science the most profound simplicity and even beauty of illustration, not less than depth of research; even in the exercise of charity, the greatest of Christian virtues, cheerfulness and kindly bearing in the charitable giver, as well as value and fitness in the gift; in ordinary affairs of business, integrity, made doubly welcome by a frank and courteous address. It is a golden thread, easily woven into every texture, which it will scarcely fail to strengthen and adorn.”

* * * * *

“It was the observation of a most remarkable woman, whose personal fascinations did not fail with the progress of time, ‘that beauty without grace, was a hook without bait.’ Compare, as may be done occasionally in society, two individuals of the hardier sex, alike in bodily proportions, features and muscular development—the one awkward, careless and blundering, the other radiant with dignity and gracefulness, and the value of external refinement will be practically shown.

“Let it not be supposed that the cultivation of manner, which is earnestly advocated, belongs in its nature, or is intended in its application and use, for certain classes merely, for the educated and affluent, while it would overlook larger numbers, and, in a country like ours, not less important interests. No cottage is so lowly, no employment so unpretending, as to be more than others a stranger to its benefits. If there be a difference in the value of genuine refinement—that which causes the heart to sympathize—according to the different situations in which it should appear, a higher relative estimate may be placed upon it beneath the humble shelter of a straw-built shed, than in the halls of opulence. Wealth may com-

mand a counterfeit resemblance, may assume the studied air of affability without the feeling it implies, and spread its floors with artificial grace and elegance. There is no artifice in the refinement of the poor. Their simple dwellings, decorated with the fragrant ornaments of nature, by the hand which gathers with daily toil its daily bread, and lighted up with smiles and innocence, are as radiant as the palaces of kings. The same garlands of flowers, plucked from nature's bed, which in Eden our first parent wove for his all-accomplished bride,

The loveliest pair
That ever since in love's embraces met;
Adam, the goodliest man of men since born,
His sons—the fairest of her daughters, Eve—

may be gathered anew, as emblems of the simple elegance of cottage life. Yet 'Solomon, in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of these.' And that bright token of an unspotted spirit which shines most brightly in the cabin of the poor, the opposite of the loathsome livery of want, disease, and crime, let cleanliness be there. It was a common saying of Sir Edward Coke, England's mirror of the law, that the cleanliness of a man's garments was calculated to remind him of keeping all clean within. Coarse fare is sweet when welcome crowns the boards. Good will is always graceful; and the smile that plays around the lips of innocence, instinct with cheerfulness, is richer than a monarch's favor."

* * * * *

THE GENTLEMAN.

Extract from Bishop Doane's address at Burlington College:

"When you have found a man, you have not far to go to find a gentleman. You cannot make a gold ring out of brass. You cannot change a Cape May crystal to a diamond. You cannot make a gentleman till you have first a man. To be a gentleman, it will not be sufficient to have had a grandfather. To be a gentleman, does not depend upon the tailor, or the toilet. Blood will degenerate. Good clothes are not good habits. The Prince Lee Boo concluded that the hog, in England, was the only gentleman, as being the only thing that did not labor. A gentleman is just a *gentle*-man; no more, no less; a diamond polished, that was first a diamond in the rough. A gentleman is gentle. A gentleman is modest. A gentleman is courteous. A gentleman is generous. A gentleman is slow to take offence, as being one that never gives it. A gentleman is slow to surmise evil, as being one that never thinks it. A gentleman goes armed, only in consciousness of right. A gentleman subjects his appetites. A gentleman refines his taste. A gentleman subdues his feelings. A gentleman controls his speech. A gentleman deems every other better than himself. Sir Philip

Sidney was never so much a gentleman—mirror though he was of England's knighthood—as when, upon the field of Zutphen, as he lay in his own blood, he waived the draft of cool spring water, that was brought to quench his mortal thirst, in favor of a dying soldier. Saint Paul described a gentleman when he exhorted the Philippian Christian, "Whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report, if there be any virtue, and if there be any praise, think on these things." And Dr. Isaac Barrow, in his admirable sermon on the calling of a gentleman, pointedly says, "He should labor and study to be a leader unto virtue and a notable promoter thereof; directing and exciting men thereto, by his exemplary conversation; encouraging them by his countenance and authority; rewarding the goodness of meaner people by his bounty and favor; he should be such a gentleman as Noah, who preached righteousness, by his words and works, before a profane world."

[From the *Mercantile Times*.]

THE FIELD OF REVOLUTION—HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL.

In these stirring times of revolution, present and prospective, all over Europe, it behooves every one to keep up his geographical knowledge of the great field of action and commotion, and be able to say how things were before the hurricane of 1848 swept it, and who were the nominal rulers before the people took it into their heads to displace them.

FRANCE and her late king, Louis Philippe, were more familiarly known here than any other country and ruler, except England. Like England, it was a limited, constitutional monarchy. The revolution of 1830, which dethroned Charles X. and elevated Louis Philippe, was a virtual compromise between the monarchical and republican theories; and though a king, yet Louis Philippe was a citizen king—the king, not of France, but of the French, whose government, it was expected, would be the leading representative of liberal ideas in Europe. A trial of eighteen years disappointed France and the friends of France and freedom everywhere. The result is now historical. Louis Philippe is a refugee, flung from the warm bosom of a great and generous nation, to shelter himself where he may; and the dynasty which he destroyed himself to build, is extinct. France is a Republic. Her population is now 34,194,875—her territory, 202,135 square miles.

PRUSSIA, which now fills a large space in the political world, and which, from an insignificant state, has risen within the last century to be one of the five great powers of Europe, is governed by Frederic William IV., born in 1795, during the storm of the first French revolution, and ascended the throne in 1840, at the age of forty-five. He is, therefore, fifty-three at the present time. The government has been heretofore an absolute monarchy, over a population of 14,330,000, and a territory of 106,301 square miles. The people have for years been cajoled with promises of a constitution, which, however, have yielded nothing till since the fall of Louis Philippe. On the 18th of March, after bloody conflicts between the people and the king's troops, the cause of freedom triumphed, extorting from the monarch such pledges as satisfied them at the time, and which, if fulfilled, will probably save the throne a little longer.

AUSTRIA is the second of the five great powers, with a population of 35,000,000, composed of heterogeneous materials, of different races, different religions and different languages. The present monarch, Ferdinand, commenced his reign in 1835, at the age of forty-two—now fifty-five, and imbecile in character. The real monarch, since the peace of 1815, has been Prince Metternich, the arch representative of despotic ideas. But his days are numbered. The storm has swept him from the council-board of European politics, and his sovereign has been compelled to submit to the demands of the people.

BAVARIA, with a population of four millions and a half, under the rule of Louis, the admirer of Lola Montes, has heretofore been a limited monarchy in form, having its two legislative chambers, like France. Louis is now well advanced in life, say sixty-two or sixty-three, and has disgusted his people and all Europe with his *liaison* with the dancing girl above named. The last news mentioned that he had abdicated in favor of his son.

BELGIUM, the great battle-ground of Europe, has about the same population as Bavaria, though less than half its territorial dimensions. Leopold I., an amiable man, is king, with two chambers. It has promptly recognized the new government in France.

The ITALIAN STATES are all, more or less, disturbed by the spirit of revolution, and would seem to be tending decidedly to republicanism, notwithstanding the concessions in most cases reluctantly yielded by their sovereigns. Sardinia, population 4,100,000, has obtained what it demanded of Charles Albert, whose sincerity, however, is doubted. This has been an absolute monarchy till now. So was Tuscany, under the Grand Duke Leopold II. Population a million and a half. Naples, or the Two Sicilies, with nearly eight millions of people, Ferdinand II., king; and the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, with four millions and a half, under Austrian

control, are all raging at fever-heat for reform; while the Pope, in the States of the Church, seems as yet not afraid to go forward in the path he has chosen as a liberal ruler.

The inferior States and Duchies in Italy and the smaller principalities, landgravines, electorates, &c., in Germany, must all be affected, in greater or less degree, by the movement of the heavier and more important governments.

RUSSIA, the great bear of the north, is as yet an unexcited spectator of these magical transformations; yet even Russia will have to engage in the strife when the voice of violated and unappeased Poland rises high and clear above the general jar, demanding a kingdom and a name.

A PARABLE FOR THE LADIES.

Naomi, the young and lovely daughter of Salathiel and Judith, was troubled in spirit because, at the approaching feast of trumpets, she would be compelled to appear in her plain, undyed stole; while some of her young acquaintances would appear in blue and purple and fine linen of the land of Egypt. Her mother saw the gloom that appeared on the face of the lovely girl, and taking her apart, related to her this parable.

A dove thus made her complaint to the guardian spirit of the feathered tribe:

“King genius, why is it that the hoarse voiced strutting peacock spreads its gaudy train to the sun, dazzling the eyes of every beholder with richly burnished neck and royal crown, to the astonishment of every passer-by, whilst I, in my plain plumage, am overlooked and forgotten by all? Thy ways, kind genius, seem not to be equal towards those under thy care and protection.”

The genius listened to her complaint, and thus replied:

“I will grant thee a train similar in richness to that of the gaudy bird thou seemest to envy, and shall demand of thee one condition in return.”

“What is that?” eagerly inquired the dove, overjoyed at the prospect of possessing what seemed to promise so much happiness.

“It is,” said the genius, “that thou dost consent to surrender all those qualities of meekness, tenderness, constancy and love, for which thy family have been distinguished in all times.”

“Let me consider,” said the dove. “No; I cannot consent to such an exchange. No, not for all the gaudy plumage, the showy train of that vain bird, can I surrender those qualities of which thou speakest, the distinguished features of my family from time immemorial. I must decline, good genius, the condition thou dost propose.”

“Then why complain, dear bird? Has not Providence bestowed on thee qualities which thou valuest more than all the gaudy adornment thou admirest? And art thou discontented still?”

A tear started in the eye of the dove, at this mild rebuke of the guardian spirit, and she promised never to complain.

The beautiful girl, who had entered into the story with deep and tender emotion, raised her fine blue eyes to meet her mother's gaze: and as they rolled upward, suffused with penitential tears, she said in a sudden tone, with a smile like that assumed by all nature, when the bow of God appears in the heavens after a storm—“My mother, I think I know what that story means. Let me be thy dove! let me have that ornament of a meek and quiet spirit, and I am satisfied to see others appear in rich and gaudy apparel!”

TOUCHING SCENES.

The following extracts are from a letter written by Captain Merrill, of Batavia, to his brother. Captain M. was in all the battles:

“I cannot forbear noticing two touching incidents that fell under my observation. Among the brave and good who have this day fallen, was my friend Burwell, of the 5th infantry. He fell early in the action, from a wound in the leg. On the slight repulse of our troops, he was inhumanly murdered by the enemy's lancers. His faithful dog, a beautiful pointer, had accompanied him there; he also was wounded. During the action, he became separated from his master. After it had subsided, the noble form of Burwell, manly as in life, was discovered, and beside him, and even licking his face and wounds, was his poor dog, who, regardless of his own pain, had sought his generous master in the hour of danger, and there, upon the same field, to die. This affecting scene touched the hearts of many.

“Again, after the fury of the battle was over, I saw a camp-woman, of the Infantry, who came upon the field to look for her husband. Almost frantic with despair, she ran from one to another to inquire after him, but, getting no information, she immediately went to search for him among the slain. Passing from body to body, she at length found him—dead. Kneeling over his corpse, she endeavored to raise it, but finding life extinct, she gave utterance to shrieks and lamentations truly touching to hear. Her all had fallen. She continued to remain on the field, (under the fire of the enemy,) until his lifeless body was carried off, which she followed in the deepest grief. Such is affectionate woman.”

To this letter of Captain M., we add another of a most touching kind, from Lieutenant Sears:

“JALAPA, MEXICO, August 22d, 1847.

“*My dear Madam:—*

“It is my very painful duty to inform you of the death of your son, Lieutenant George D. Twiggs, who was killed at the battle of the National Bridge, on the 12th instant. I had the honor to command a battery, and while returning from the bridge, where my junior lieutenant had been mortally wounded, I met your son, who, on being informed of my situation, volunteered to assist me. While engaged in drawing one of the pieces up the hill under a very heavy fire, I turned to address a direction to him: he replied ‘Yes,’ in the same breath, exclaiming, ‘Oh! my God, save me,’ at the same time, before I could catch him, falling to the ground. I caused him to be laid beside the road, and as soon as the piece was carried up the hill, I descended myself to bring him up; but, alas! he was dead! shot through the body. A cross, a miniature, and a prayer-book were found in his breast. Permit me, madam, to sympathize with you, most sincerely, in the loss of so esteemed a son. Never has it been my good fortune to meet a gentleman possessed of so many excellent qualities of heart and mind. To every accomplishment which beautifies and adorns man’s noblest character, was added a bravery and high-souled chivalry unequalled. He was a worthy scion of the noble stock from which he sprung. It may in some manner assuage the grief of a soldier’s mother, to know that her son died nobly fighting for his country. Again, madam, permit me to tender my sincerest sympathies, and remain,

“Very truly, your obedient, servant,

“HENRY B. SEARS, *Lt. 2d Artillery.*”

THE MEN OF CHURUBUSCO.

[“Contreras being carried by Persifor Smith, Worth pushed on towards San Antonio and San Angel. How San Antonio was carried by Worth, and how *the whole army then fell upon Churubusco*, and drove the enemy from his works, and completely routed him, the letters we give in other columns sufficiently tell.”]—*New Orleans Picayune* of Sept. 9th.

They’ll point them out in after years—
 The men of Churubusco Fight!
 And tender hearts will name with tears
 The gallant spirits quenched in night,
 When each who under WINFIELD fought,
 And kept the field alive,
 Was equal, in the deeds he wrought,
 To any common five—
 They’ll point them out, those veterans then,
 As far beyond all common men,

And each to each, with stern delight,
Will name the Churubusco Fight.

They'll sing their praise, when they're no more—
The men of Churubusco Fight!
And when their latest march is o'er—
As one by one is lost to sight—
Then they will ask the friends to spare,
From off that hoary brow,
A shred but of the scattered hair
Which waves so richly now:
And loiterers by the inn-side hearth
Will pause amid their tavern mirth,
And filling, fear, since he has pass'd,
They drink "to Churubusco's last!"

They'll paint their deeds in statued hall—
The deeds of Churubusco Fight:
And on the smoke-dried cottage wall,
Will smile their pictures, brave and bright,
Who fought with stalwart Scott of yore,
That glorious field to win—
When every warrior bosom bore
Five hero hearts within:
They'll legends tell of heroes then,
Far, far, beyond all modern men—
And still in song will grow more bright,
The deeds of Churubusco Fight.

THE PRESS.

The art of printing is, perhaps, the mightiest instrumentality ever contrived by man, for the exertion of moral influence. The Rev. Dr. Adams, in his late address at Yale College, remarked:—

“In the city of Strasburg, on the eastern frontier of France, there stands, in the principal square, a large bronze statue of Gutenberg, the inventor of the art of printing with movable types. It is a full-length figure of that fortunate individual, with a printing press at his side, and an open scroll in his hand, with this inscription:—*And there was light.* Upon the several sides of the high pedestal on which the effigy stands, are four tableaux in bas-relief, designed to represent the effect of the art of printing on the general progress of the world.

“In one, stand the names of the most distinguished scholars, philosophers and poets of all times; in another, the names of those who have been most eminent for their achievements in the cause of human freedom; conspicuous amongst which is an allusion to our Declaration of Independence, with the names of Washington, Franklin, Hancock and Adams. On the third side, is a representation of

philanthropy knocking off the fetters of the slave, and instructing the tawny children of oppression in useful knowledge; and on the fourth, is Christianity, surrounded by the representatives of all nations, and tribes, and people, receiving from her hand, in their own tongue, the word of eternal truth. Christianity! Heaven-born Christianity! Divine philosophy! look down with indifference or disdain on that bearded man, at work with tools in his smutty shop, away on the Rhine! Affect to overlook and undervalue him as a mechanic!—A mechanic! why, out of those bars of wood, and pounds of metal, and ounces of ink, he is constructing a machine to make the nations think. He is constructing wings for Christianity herself, which shall bear her, with the music of her silver trumpet, to all the abodes of men.”

A BEAUTIFUL SENTIMENT.

The late eminent judge, Sir Allen Park, once said, in a public meeting in London:—

“We live in the midst of blessings till we are utterly insensible of their greatness, and of the source from whence they flow. We speak of our civilization, our arts, our freedom, our laws, and forget entirely how large a share is due to Christianity. Blot Christianity out of the pages of man’s history, and what would his laws have been—what his civilization? Christianity is mixed up with our very being and our daily life; there is not a familiar object around us which does not wear a different aspect because the light of Christian love is on it—not a law which does not owe its truth and gentleness to Christianity—not a custom which cannot be traced, in all its holy, healthful parts, to the Gospel.”

A MAN WHO HAS FAILED.

Let a man fail in business, what a wonderful effect it has on his former friends and creditors! Men who have taken him by the arm, laughed and chatted with him by the hour—shrug up the shoulder and pass on with a chilling “how do ye do?” Every trifle of a bill is hunted up and presented, that would not have seen day-light for months to come, but for the misfortune of the debtor. If it is paid, well and good—if not, the scowl of a sheriff, perhaps, meets him at the first corner.

A man who never failed, knows but little of human nature. In prosperity he sails along, gently wafted by favoring gales, receiving

smiles and kind words from everybody. He prides himself on his good name and spotless character, and makes his boasts that he has not an enemy in the world. Alas! the change. He looks at the world in a different light, when the reverses come upon him. He reads suspicion on every brow. He hardly knows how to move, or whether to do this thing or the other—for there are spies about him, and a writ is ready for his back.

To understand what kind of stuff the world of mind is made of, a person must be unfortunate and stop payment once in his lifetime. If he have friends, then they are made manifest. A failure is a moral sieve. It brings out the wheat and shows the chaff. A man thus learns that not words and pretended good will constitute real friendship.—*D. C. Colesworthy.*

There was no literary fame, even in Greece, until the era opened of her republican principles; but *then* she became the matchless land of civilization and refinement,

“Where science struck the thrones of earth and heaven,
Which shook but fell not; and the harmonious mind
Poured itself forth in all prophetic song,
And music lifted up the listening spirit,
Until it walked exempt from mortal care,
God-like o’er the clear billows of sweet sound.
And human hands first mimicked, and then mocked
With moulded limbs, more lovely than its own,
The human form, till marble grew divine.”

And the literature of Greece must prove forever the kindling influences of Grecian liberty.—*J. Y. Mason, Secretary of the Navy.*

PERCEPTIVE FACULTIES OF WOMAN.

Sherlock draws the following admirable distinction between the instinct and reason of woman:—The perception of woman is as quick as lightning. Her penetration is intuitive—almost instinct—by a glance she will draw a deep and just conclusion. Ask her how she formed it, and she cannot answer the question. A philosopher deducts inferences and his inferences shall be right; but he gets to the head of the stair-case, if I may so say, by slow degrees, mounting step by step. She arrives at the top of the stair-case as well as he; but whether she flew there is more than she knows herself. While she trusts her instinct, she is scarcely ever deceived, and she is generally lost when she begins to reason.

(Translated from the German.)

THE WORTH OF WOMAN.

Honored be woman! she beams on the sight,
Graceful and fair, like a being of light;
Scatters around her, wherever she stays,
Roses of bliss o'er our thorn-covered ways;
Roses of Paradise, sent from above,
To be gathered and twined in a garden of love.

Man, on Passion's stormy ocean,
Tossed by surges mountains high,
Courts the hurricane's commotion,
Springs at Reason's feeble cry.
Loud the tempest roars around him,
Louder still it roars within;
Flashing lights of hope confound him.
Stuns him life's incessant din.

Woman invites him, with bliss in her smile,
To cease from his toil, and be happy awhile;
Whispering wooingly—come to my bower;
Go not in search of the phantom of power;
Honor and wealth are illusory—come!
Happiness dwells in the temples of Home.

Man, with fury stern and savage,
Persecutes his brother man,
Reckless if he bless or ravage,
Action—action—still his plan.
Now creating—now destroying—
Ceaseless wishes tear his breast;
Ever seeking—ne'er enjoying—
Still to be—but never blest.

Woman, contented in silent repose,
Enjoys in its beauty life's flower as it blows,
And waters and tends it with innocent heart;
Far richer than man with his treasures of art.
And wiser by far in her circle confined
Than he with his science, and flights of the mind.

Coldly to himself sufficing,
Man disdains the gentler arts,
Knoweth not the bliss arising
From the interchange of hearts.
Slowly through his bosom stealing,
Flows the genial current on,
Till by age's frost congealing,
It is hardened into stone.

She like the harp that instinctively rings,
As the night breathing zephyr soft sighs on the strings,
Responds on each impulse with ready reply,
Whether sorrow or pleasure her sympathy try;
And tear drops and smiles on her countenance play,
Like sunshine and showers of a morning in May.

Through the range of man's dominion,
 Terror is the ruling word,
 And the standard of opinion,
 Is the temper of the sword.
 Strife exults, and pity, blushing,
 From the scene despairing flies,
 Where to battle, madly rushing,
 Brother upon brother dies.

Woman commands with a milder control,
 She rules by enchantment the realm of the soul;
 As she glances around in the light of her smile,
 The war of the Passions is hushed for a while,
 And discord, content from his fury to cease,
 Reposes entranced on the pillows of peace.

CHYMIFICATION OF FOOD.

Dr. Castle, of New York, has presented some facts on the powers of the digestive apparatus. He says—

“Roasted meats are more nourishing than boiled meats, and these afford more nourishment than salted or prepared meats. In the culinary preparation of fresh meats, beef should be roasted till just a *rare* spot, as minute as practicable, is left in the centre. So with boiled meats, with the exception of veal and pork, which should be well ‘done.’ * * * I will here mention how long a time different meats, variously cooked, remained in the stomach before they are digested. Dr. Beaumont for several years had an ample opportunity to ascertain this fact,—of which he availed himself,—in the case of a man named St. Martin, who had received a gunshot wound in the stomach, by which means, for several years, he was a close observer of the process of digestion or chymification of the food in the stomach of this man. The time occupied in digesting each article of food was as follows: Roasted beef, 3 hours and 30 minutes; broiled beef, 3 hours; boiled beef, 4 hours; showing that boiled meat occupies a longer period to be digested than the others:—and the reason may be accounted for in the fact that the nourishing portion is boiled out, leaving a large mass of excrementitious matter to be acted upon. Thus is the period extended upon salted meats:—salted beef requiring $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours; pork recently salted, $6\frac{1}{4}$ hours; fresh roasted pork, $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours; fresh pork boiled, 3 hours; roasted mutton, 3 hours; boiled mutton, 4 hours; broiled mutton, 3 hours; veal, fresh, $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours. These meats were eaten with a due proportion of bread and vegetables. This table shows that broiled meats digest quickest, and the most easily, occupying from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours; next, roasted meats; next, boiled and salted meats, requiring from 6 to $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours.”

SALE OF DEAD LETTER CONTENTS. .

We learn from the Washington correspondent of the Baltimore Clipper, that, on the 16th instant, was sold by auction, in Washington, at least a cart load of contents of dead letters and bundles. Among the many articles were, a beautiful badge made of cassia seed, fish hooks and lines, stockings, gloves, nightcaps, hats, razors and straps; paints, in bottles and boxes; sacking for beds, aprons, spectacles, suspenders, vest buttons, bead bags and purses, miniatures, gold and brass breastpins and rings, a pack of cards, a box of tools (rather small), silver crucifixes, handkerchiefs, book markers, calicoes, from a yard to a frock pattern; medicines, from a box of "golden pills" to a box of castor oil and a bottle of Bull's Sarsaparilla. Books, including two copies of "Mother Goose," and a dozen Bibles and Testaments, in German and in English; Prayer Books, Graham's Magazine, grammars, sheet music, &c.

A Dutchman's pipe was in the collection of curiosities; also, a garment, similar to a *robe de chambre* with a black velvet belt, sewed fast and trimmed at the edges with gold paper. It was, doubtless, a theatrical costume, intended for an amateur. Who would think such masses found their way into the mails?

THE CAPACITY OF THE WEST.

From the Alleghanies to the Rocky mountains, from the frozen lakes of the North to the tepid waters of the Gulf of Mexico! Every soil, every climate, every variety of surface. Of all the great products of the world, coffee is the only one which does not, or may not, grow there. Take the people of Britain, Ireland, France, Holland, Germany, Italy and Spain, and place the whole in the valley beyond the Appalachians, and it would continue to ask for "more." Ohio alone, without sinking a pit below the level of her valleys, could supply coal equal to the amount dug from the mines of England and Wales for twenty-five hundred years, and Ohio is but a pigmy, in the way of bitumen, compared with Western Pennsylvania and Virginia. Iron abounds from Tennessee to Lake Erie, and forms the very mountains of Missouri and Arkansas. Salt wells up from secret store-houses in every northwestern state. Lead enough to shoot the human race extinct, is raised from the great metallic dykes of Illinois and Wisconsin. Copper and silver beckon all trusting capitalists to the shores of Lake Superior. And mark the water-courses, the chain of lakes, the immense plains

graded for railroads by Nature's own hand, the reservoirs of water waiting for canals to use them. Already, the farmer, far in the interior woods of Ohio or Indiana, may ship his produce at his own door to reach Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore or New Orleans, and every mile of its transit shall be by canal, steamboat and rail-car.—*North American Review*.

THE PEARL OF GREAT PRICE.

BY ISAAC P. SHEPARD.

I ask not Fame; 'tis fleeting
 As breath of balmy eve;
 With glory's phantoms cheating,
 'Twill naught but sadness leave:
 A surer good I would possess,—
 A joy that liveth ever;
 That when is past the world's caress,
 Despair may seize me never.

I ask not gold; it bindeth
 To earth the spirit down;
 Its hireling slave ne'er findeth
 Save but a demon's frown.
 It is the Tantalus of hell,
 Immortal minds tormenting,
 And wise are they who break its spell
 Ere life's last hour repenting!

I ask not power; it stilleth
 The soul's best thoughts of God;
 Wide earth with woe it filleth,
 And sways an iron rod.
 Soft beauty's charms I would not crave,
 For which are millions sighing;
 They pass away, as sinks the wave
 Along the sea shore dying?

I ask not friends; there liveth
 But few who bear the name;
 For boasted friendship giveth
 A swift, unstable flame:
 If want is far, and hopes are bright,
 Men smile, with others smiling;
 But when comes near misfortune's night,
 They pass away reviling!

'Tis not of earth, the treasure
 That satisfies the soul;
 Its value naught can measure
 From north to southern pole.
 The seraphs round the holy throne,
 Its keeping well might covet,
 For none of all the treasures known
 In Heaven, is prized above it!

'Tis found where tears are flowing
 Down contrite sinner's cheeks,—
 Where hearts with love are glowing
 While Jesus gently speaks.
 The Star that rose in Bethlehem
 Points where is Heaven's best token,
 Beneath the Cross there lies a gem,
 THE PEARL OF PRICE UNSPOKEN!

THE RUINS OF NINEVEH.

Mr. Azariah Smith, in a letter to Prof. Silliman, an extract of which is given in a late number of the journal, remarks that it was his rare fortune to travel, a few weeks previously, in company with Mr. Layard,—the English gentleman who, aided by a scientific society of Great Britain, has been employed for the last year or two in making excavations about the ruins of Nineveh. His main work has been done at Nimrood, at or near the junction of the Zab and the Tigris, some twenty miles south of the excavations made by Mons. Botta, at Khorsabad.

From inscriptions, partially deciphered, it would appear that one of the three palaces disintombed at Nimrood, and that at Khorsabad, were built by father and son, or other near relations; and from other inscriptions disintombed by Mr. Layard, from the mound of Zoyum-jonk—the mounds of long repute directly opposite the city of Mosul—it would appear that that also sustains a similar relation to the others. From this fact, the view formerly assumed that Nineveh was latterly made up of several collections of houses interspersed with gardens, receives additional support, and *all doubt* is now removed from those passages of sacred and profane history, which makes it an exceeding great city of three days' journey.

Among other most interesting stones, sculptured and carved, sent to England from the disintombed palaces of Nimrood, there is an obelisk of considerable size—containing, as appears from the partially deciphered inscription, a chronological list of the kings of Assyria—beginning with Ninus: and it would seem that it agrees with authoritative Egyptian chronology. But space forbids farther detail. The public will soon have all the inscriptions, translated, before them.

PATRICK HENRY.

We have seen a manuscript poem, entitled "*Pleiades Virginienses*," which the author has some thoughts of publishing for the use of schools. His purpose is to give, in easy and familiar rhymes, faithful biographical sketches of a few of the most distinguished men in Virginia, believing that the leading events in their lives will be better remembered in verse, and that their bright examples, cannot but prove with the rising generation, the strongest incentives to virtue and patriotism. We are permitted by the author to present our readers with extracts from the second and fourth cantos of "*Patrick Henry*."—(ED. REG.)

CANTO II.

The time soon came when genius thus in shade,
 Would be in fuller, broader light displayed.
 The stamp act now its baleful influence shed,
 And filled the people with surmise and dread.
 As wary settlers on the wild frontier,
 When danger from their savage foe is near,
 Their palisadoes with much care survey,
 And those replace that indicate decay—
 The people thus for threaten'd ills prepare,
 And choose their guardians with unwonted care;
 To cautious age prefer courageous youth,
 That, prompt and fearless, dares to speak the truth :
 And thus young Henry as a burgess choose,
 While law and hunting he by turns pursues.
 He had as yet not thirty summers told,
 But then they knew him to be firm and bold :
 His wisdom, too, beyond his years and speech,
 That never fail'd its hearers' hearts to reach.
 In that assembly when he takes his seat,
 The well-born, rich and proud he needs must meet ;
 While homespun garb and awkward rustic air
 His own more humble origin declare.
 Ne'er could patrician, who there sat, surmise
 How high above them he in time would rise ;
 That for their country, in its hour of need,
 Themselves would follow when this "clown" should lead ;
 That soon the proudest in that hall would bow
 To him regarded their inferior now ;
 So much we see that nature's nobles can
 Superior rise to nobles made by man.

Two parties then, as since, the state divide ;
 One with the court—one with the country side.
 Our Henry soon to the assembly show'd
 That with the people his affections flow'd ;
 By fellow-feeling was their cause endeared,
 And to the people he through life adhered.
 His was the honor to have first opposed
 The odious tax by Britain then imposed.

Not seeing other opposition made,
 He framed resolves, without advice or aid;
 'Tis for his country that he, vent'rous, dares,
 And thus her rights, in language bold, declares:
 "When English pilgrims to these wilds first came,
 They brought what rights they could in England claim:
 And all their charters from the crown expressed
 They here, as there, the self-same rights possess'd.
 One rule of English law has this intent,
 You can't tax freemen but with their consent.
 This every Briton's privilege and boast,
 Virginia has not forfeited nor lost.
 The lawless power her ministers now crave,
 Would soon or late all Englishmen enslave."
 These resolutions fail to gain support
 From those who flatter or who fear the court;
 Nor would the prudent all they felt express,
 But thought forbearance promised more success.
 Yet naught could Henry's burning zeal repress;
 By love of country and by freedom fir'd,
 The young debater spoke like one inspired;
 He proved, by reasoning clear as solar light,
 Their claims were founded both on law and right.
 He urged that all from that time forth must be
 As then they acted, either slaves or free;
 He told the Tories they would sure repent
 The fatal course on which they now were bent.
 He then, in tone of solemn warning, said,
 "Cæsar his Brutus, Charles the Second had
 His Cromwell, too, and (pausing) George the Third"—
 Here cries of "treason" from all sides were heard;
 But Henry adds, by happy turn of thought—
 "May profit by the lesson they have taught;
 And ye, who would my language strictly scan,
 Are free to make it treason if you can."

Throughout the land this speech spreads Henry's name,
 And to its lustre adds a patriot's fame.
 Nor did his efforts in Virginia end;
 To every province Henry's words extend;
 Their opposition to the tax augment,
 And give new edge to previous discontent:
 As when a fire, left in a lonely wood,
 By hunter kindled to prepare his food,
 (The leaves first reaches on the neighboring ground,
 But soon extends in all directions round,)
 The flame soon spreads, as wafts the rising breeze
 From grass to shrubs, from shrubs to lofty trees;
 It fiercer rages till the eye surveys
 The wide-spread forest in one general blaze.
 The flame that Henry thus had caused to rise,
 From man to man through ev'ry province flies;
 The English statesmen soon their error saw,
 And to repair it, they repeal the law.

* * * * *

CANTO IV.

* * * * *

Cotemporaries to a man concurr'd
 He spoke as no one they had ever heard ;
 To him had nature given a voice whose tones
 Were such as flute to practis'd player owns—
 So sweet and full, so deep and yet so clear,
 His words e'er fell like music on the ear.
 His fancy, too, though chaste, was bold and strong,
 His flights, all well sustained, were never long ;
 His figures such as dullest mind could seize,
 Yet such as critics, most refined, would please.
 His diction, drawn from page of Holy Writ,
 Or classic works of sterling sense and wit,
 Was nervous, pure, from affectation free ;
 'Bove all, it charmed by sweet simplicity.
 Vers'd in the windings of the human heart,
 'Twas here he showed his most consummate art ;
 Nor was there passion in the human breast
 He could not waken, or consign to rest,
 As with his purpose then accorded best.
 In country store and country courts, his mind
 Obtain'd its thorough knowledge of mankind.
 What thus he learnt, he better understood
 By meditation as he roam'd the wood.
 No mind e'er yet to eminence attained
 Unless in solitude 'twas partly train'd.
 Few men with like sagacity foretold
 Those great events the future would unfold ;
 Skill'd as he was in man's great moral laws,
 Remote effects he saw in present cause ;
 Before all others, he distinctly ken'd
 Our wrongs would here in independence end.
 And when the sanguine friends of freedom thought
 That Buonaparte as its champion fought—
 While other voices with his praises swell'd,
 A second Cæsar, Henry's eye beheld.
 However merit modesty conceal'd,
 To his discernment it was soon revealed ;
 Washington's wisdom Henry first proclaimed,
 When he was only as a warrior named ;
 Unknown and friendless Gallatin he saw,
 And aiming talent from its shade to draw,
 Commends him to the study of the law ;
 Whate'er ambition thence this statesman fired,
 It was by Henry, as he owns, inspired.*
 With all those brilliant attributes of mind,
 The best affections of the heart combin'd ;
 As husband, father, patriot or friend,
 'Twere rare to find one who could less offend.
 With so much homage to his merits paid,
 He neither pride nor vanity betrayed ;

* The writer had this anecdote from the venerable Nathaniel Macon, of North Carolina.

The power and station he so oft declin'd,
 Showed that ambition could not warp his mind.
 But though thus humble, he had firmness too,
 When once he saw the path he should pursue;
 To his humility, in part, he owed
 The frequent favors his compeers bestowed.
 In every county he had chanced to live,
 He soon became its representative.*
 One honor paid him none beside can boast,
 And though the cheapest one, that pleases most;
 The state oft makes some county bear the name
 Of son most favored or best known to fame;
 The climax of her favor now can cap,
 She writes his name in full upon the map;
Patrick and *Henry* thus will ever prove
 How high he rated in Virginia's love.

RAJINDA DUTT.

(Communicated.)

Baboo Rajinda Dutt, a native physician of Calcutta, is distinguished by his great ability, learning and humanity. His wealth enables him to practice gratuitously, and to become an extensive patron of science and improvement. Fitz Edward Hall, of Troy, New York, a graduate of Cambridge College, is now studying Sanscrit, and devoted to oriental literature at Calcutta, and was introduced to Bishop Wilson, of Calcutta, to whom he was kindly commended by letters from Bishop Potter, of Pennsylvania, Bishop Hopkins, of Vermont, and the Hon. Edward Everett, President of Harvard College. At the suggestion of Mr. Hall, this learned native, with whom he had become acquainted, united with him in June 1847, and sent to the librarian of Cambridge College, a box of curious books and manuscripts. An American Bible; a Bengali Bible, translated by the celebrated missionary Carey; the *Gulistán*, by Sádi of Shiráz, a Persian manuscript; the celebrated tale of the Four Dervishes, by Amér Khushrú; and other rare works, are contained in this collection.

The letter of Mr. Hall to the librarian, shows his deep devotion to science. He is a member of the Bengal Asiatic Society, which was founded, we believe, by Sir William Jones, the great pioneer in oriental literature.

The letter of the distinguished native Baboo Rajinda Dutt, written in English, and accompanying the box, is here annexed. Mr.

* He at different times was elected by the counties of Hanover, Louisa, Prince Edward, Henry and Charlotte, and is the only man who was ever thrice chosen governor of the state.

Hall remarks of him that "besides being an excellent scholar and writer of his own language, he possesses a really critical knowledge of English, and has read all our best writers. His acquaintance with those of the age of Elizabeth, and of the last century, is particularly thorough. He has the largest library of any native in Calcutta, and he is well acquainted with its contents." His letter is as follows:

T. W. HARRIS, M. D.,

Librarian of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

SIR—The assiduity and perseverance, not to speak of devotedness, with which Mr. Hall is studying the Oriental languages, evinces a growing desire on the part of your nation,—which is not behind any in the advancement of learning,—to stand in the same high position, as Sanskrit scholars, which the German and other European nations have reached. That this is practicable to the Americans, there is not the least doubt; since you possess facilities and advantages equal, if not superior, to the learned of Europe: and your enterprising character enables you to overcome every difficulty which is supposed to attend the study of Sanskrit—acknowledged to be more complex than Greek,—in a country where there is not much, if any chance of getting a native tutor. I hope, therefore, the time is not distant when the Sanskrit with its cognate tongues, and other Oriental languages, will be recognized by your Universities; and allowed a place in the curriculum of their studies. With this fond expectation, I do myself the honor to send, through my friend Mr. Hall, some Sanskrit books and manuscripts: and I am now collecting some standard works in Bengali which I intend to place at your disposal at my earliest convenience. I can assure you, as you will ere long hear from Mr. Hall, that any labor undertaken or time spent in the study of Sanskrit will be amply rewarded by the profundity and inexhaustible richness of that learned language.

Allow me to express the deep interest I take in the progress which science and the arts, and specially the healing art, are making in your country. For America I entertain the warmest hopes and the highest expectations, and fain would I visit that land,—the land of liberty and the best constitution of government now existing upon earth, and be the bearer of this my humble present to your university, were I not, to my infinite mortification, impeded by restraints which it is superfluous to specify. Happily for us, we have the earnest of better and felicitous days; and those not too far distant. The school-master is also abroad here, as elsewhere, doing his sacred duty: and the march of intellect is advancing in India, beyond the most sanguine expectations of her well-wishers. It is my earnest hope, that ere long, the people of this country will resort to

Europe and America, which are now forbidden ground to Hindu pilgrims, for the purposes of intellectual and commercial intercourse, and thus, by oft repeated communion, cement and confirm that fellowship which, as members of the same species, rank us together as brothers.

As my time has been principally employed in commercial pursuits, you will kindly excuse the defective mode in which I have endeavored to convey my cordial attachment to your institutions and country, and permit me to subscribe,

Sir, your most obedient servant,

Calcutta, 9th June, 1847.

RAJINDA DUTT.
G.

DR. THOMAS CHALMERS.

The death of this eminent divine, during the past year, called forth a universal tribute of respect. No clergyman of Scotland, since the days of John Knox, had so strong and pervading a hold on the national mind, as Chalmers. The attendance at the funeral ceremony by men from every part of the country, without distinction of sect, was evidence of their love and admiration. The homage was real—the affectionate regret manifested, was that of a whole people.

Dr. Chalmers was born in a small town in Fife, in the year 1780, and after studying at the University of St. Andrews, was ordained assistant to a clergyman in the south of Scotland in 1802, and to a parochial charge in his native county in 1803. In 1809, the treatise, afterwards expanded into his *Evidences of Christianity*, was prepared for *Brewster's Encyclopedia*. In 1814, he received a call to the Tron Church, of Glasgow, from which he was removed in 1819 to the newly erected parish of St. John's in the same city. In 1823, he was appointed professor of moral philosophy in the University of St. Andrews. In 1828 he was elected professor of divinity in the University of Edinburgh. In 1843 he relinquished that charge, on the occasion of the Free Church secession, and became Principal of the New College of Edinburgh, instituted by that body for the education of its clergy, an appointment which he retained till his death.

One of the best evidences of his greatness, is the fact that his popularity never waned. He did not acquire his position by over-taxing his powers at any one period of his life, but by doing from the first what his heart prompted, and what his genius fully enabled him to do. The time never came to him, when, with a mind and body enfeebled by over-work, he found himself burdened with a

reputation too mighty to be sustained. Great as was the fame which he acquired, he did not go beyond himself in the labors which acquired it. He got it naturally. He acted out what was in him, and the fame *came* to him. Had Dr. Chalmers ever been troubled about his *reputation*, had he ever come to that *pinching place* in the paths of ordinary great men, and found it necessary to substitute the *keeping up of his name* for the honest, true-hearted and Christian motives that had actuated him in the efforts by which he made it, there would certainly have been an abatement, before he died, of the interest, which, as a preacher, he excited. But he was above this evil, above this folly.

“I admired him for more than thirty years,” says Merle D’Aubigné. “I saw him two years ago, and I was immediately subdued by one of the grandest natures which grace ever sanctified. * * Few men have had, even on the continent, an influence as extensive and as blessed as Chalmers. * * * From his youth, there was found in him, as in Pascal, the liveliest imagination, with the most wonderful mathematical capacity. What man in the church, united as he did, to so profound a philosophical spirit, such an admirable synthetical power, such marvelous benevolence? You have read his discourses. But I will say to you as the Athenian rhetorician said to Demosthenes: *what if you had heard him?* Nowhere, either in Germany, or in Switzerland, or in France, or in England, have I felt so transported as by the sublime eloquence of Chalmers. And what characterizes his eloquence is, that it is always subordinate to a great purpose. He was not only the first of modern orators; but he was in the full extent of the word, a Reformer.”

The aspect and attitude of Chalmers during the few last years of his life were beautiful in the extreme. Any harshnesses of his earlier days had been rounded off by time, “like the high leaves upon the holly-tree.” His hopeful, enthusiastic benevolence was pure, unsophisticated, as in youth: he was to the last, a child in heart. He was the great apostle in this age of the infinite superiority of the living benevolence of a good man to the fossilized benevolence embodied in statutes. Himself full of intense life and benevolence, he communicated the contagion to all who came into contact with him. He must not be judged of by the forms in which his mind was cast in youth, and from which they were never emancipated—or by the controversies in which he was engaged—these all were local and sectarian. But he must be judged by the universality of his mind, which over-informed those outward visible appearances, and from its own redundant vitality imparted life and energy to others.

DANIEL O'CONNELL.

The family of this distinguished man can be distinctly traced back to Richard O'Connell, who, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, made submission of his lands to the crown.

Daniel O'Connell, the subject of the present memoir, was the eldest son of Morgan O'Connell, one of twenty-two children, one-half of whom lived to upwards of eighty years. This Morgan O'Connell, or Morgan O'Connell, Esq., as he was called as he grew prosperous in the world, in the early portion of his life combined the occupations of a farmer and that of a shopkeeper at Cahirciveen, and having amassed a competency, he retired to a little estate he purchased at Carhen, about a mile distant from the scene of his early labors; and here Daniel was born, on the 6th of August, 1775, the very date in which hostilities were commenced against the American colonies. The education of the future agitator was not much attended to in his early years; his first instructor being a poor hedge-schoolmaster, one David Mahony, who, happening to call at Carhen House in one of his rounds in quest of charitable assistance, took young Dan, then four years old, upon his lap, and was playing with him, when perceiving that the child's hair, which was long, had got much entangled, he took out a box-comb, and combed it thoroughly without hurting him; in gratitude for which the child readily consented to learn his letters from the old man, and perfectly and permanently mastered the whole alphabet in an hour and a half. His father's eldest brother, Maurice O'Connell, of Derrynane, being childless, he adopted Daniel and his brother Maurice, and, when of a proper age, their education was intrusted to the Rev. Mr. Harrington, one of the first priests who set up a school after the repeal of the penal laws. At fourteen years of age, their uncle sent them to the continent, to finish their studies.

He entered upon the profession of the law in 1798, and soon attained distinction. In 1809, he made his first appearance in politics, and was placed among the leaders of the movement for Catholic Emancipation. In 1813, he killed Alderman D'Esterre in a duel, and soon after made a vow never again to fight a duel, but did not, at the same time, resolve to desist from the use of personal and insulting language.

In 1821, when George IV. paid his royal visit to Ireland, O'Connell received him on his bended knee when he touched the shore of Ireland, and presented him with a laurel crown.

In 1823, he conceived the idea of the Catholic Association.

According to the statutes of the Association in *embryo*, every ecclesiastic was, *ipso facto*, a member. Mr. O'Connell had invited

three students to meet with them—they hesitated. He forced them into the room, and closing the door, he exclaimed, with a thundering voice—"We are constituted—Mr. Shiel, I call on you to speak!" From this moment, the Association began to send its agitating waves outward, like a stone dropped suddenly into still water. In a short time, all the priests became members. These levers of Irish society secured, the passions and energies of the nation were lifted with ease. The Rent was instituted, and the sinews of war poured in so rapidly, that the Association became a powerful engine both for offensive and defensive warfare. An energetic press supported the exertions of the new National Party, and a host of talent rushed into the ranks. The government of the day became alarmed, and in 1825 they brought in a bill for the suppression of the Association. This measure had the effect of causing the Association to dissolve itself; but, like the fabled monster of old, no sooner was the head cut off, than a thousand others sprung from its blood. Every provincial town now had its Association, ostensibly for the purposes of charity, but really to carry out the agitation which the metropolitan institution had been suppressed for beginning. This year, Mr. O'Connell succeeded to the Derrynane estate on the death of his uncle.

At the election of 1828, Mr. O'Connell was returned to Parliament for the county of Clare. The concession of Catholic emancipation was announced from the throne at the commencement of the session of 1829.

In 1830, he first commenced the agitation for the repeal of the Union. In 1834, after a debate of seven nights, the question of repeal was decided in Parliament by a vote of 523 to 38. Only one British member voted for repeal.

Mr. O'Connell supported the Melbourne administration, but did not abate, for a moment, his agitation of Ireland.

In 1836, he formed a general National Association; in 1838, the Precursors' Society, which afterwards made way for the Repeal Association. When Sir R. Peel came into power, in 1841, O'Connell commenced this agitation with the fierceness which he always exhibited towards the Tory party. He roused the whole population; and during the summers of 1843 and '44, Ireland witnessed a scene such as it never did before, and, perhaps, never will again—assemblies of men counted by the hundred thousands, swayed by the will of one man, and meeting and dispersing without the slightest violence. The Peel ministry, however, became frightened at their increasing numbers, and with the simple display of the artillery and dragoons upon the meeting-place of Clontarf, put an end, forever, to these demonstrations. The trial of O'Connell and his fellow-conspirators, as they were called, is so fresh in the memory of the

public, that we need not here allude to it. The split between the Old and Young Irelanders seems to have been the first event which shook the confidence of O'Connell in his own powers. He saw, with dismay, the young and most vigorous of his partisans, headed by Smith O'Brien, who stood high with the Irish Liberals, arrayed against him, and the guiding principle of his life, the doctrine of non-physical force, derided and laughed at. The famine then came, and paralyzed the Rent; disease fell upon him; and, broken down and debilitated, he retired to die, far away from the active scenes of his youth, and that mountain home, where the merry cry of his beagles had resounded for so many long eventful years.

He died at Genoa, on the 15th of May, 1847.

The author of *Sketches of the Irish Bar* describes Mr. O'Connell in the days of his greatest activity, after this manner. Alluding to his dwelling, he says:—

“The half-opened parlor-shutter, and the light within, announce that some one dwells there whose time is too precious to permit him to regulate his rising with the sun's. Should your curiosity tempt you to ascend the steps, and, under cover of the dark, to reconnoitre the interior, you will see a tall, able-bodied man standing at a desk, and immersed in solitary occupation. Upon the wall, in front of him, there hangs a crucifix. From this, and from the calm attitude of the person within, and from a certain monastic rotundity about his neck and shoulders, your first impression will be, that he must be some pious dignitary of the Church of Rome, absorbed in his matin devotions. But this conjecture will be rejected almost as soon as formed, as soon as the eye takes in the other furniture of the apartment—the book-cases clogged with tomes in plain calfskin binding, the blue-covered octavos that lie about on the tables and the floor, the reams of manuscript in oblong folds, and begirt with crimson tape.”

“If, by accident,” says the same writer, “you should afterwards look in at the Four Courts, you would have seen the same individual, transferred from the severe recluse of the morning, to the joyous, bustling lawyer, environed by clients and attorneys. You would hear him in the midst of some eloquent harangue, addressed to the jury with that winning sweetness, and assurance of success, which he so well knew how to assume, burst forth into an exordium upon the beauty of Green Erin, and proclaim that the hour of her redemption was at hand. The thought of Ireland liberated seemed never absent from his thoughts; it was as a religion, and he mixed it up with every thought and action of his life.”

As Mr. O'Connell was one of the most remarkable men of the age, we feel excused in extending this biographical notice still fur-

ther, for the purpose of adding a well-drawn picture of the close of his life.

“The monster meetings were truly the climax of O’Connell’s career. That fatal prosecution gave him his death-blow. Not all the triumph of the after decision of the House of Lords, not all the millions who wept with joy at his release, or fired the hills, and thronged the wayside, on the day of his conqueror-like passage through Dublin, from the prison to his home—not even these rare gifts of fate to man, could stop the decay which was even now commencing. We remember well our sensations of pain and sorrow, when we first saw him after his release and return to England. The massive frame still was there; but the vacant eye, the sunken cheeks, their hectic tinge, the shrunken arms, which hung listlessly by his side, the measured but feeble step—all told, too truly, the tale of his coming decline. That magnificent man was already stranded—let a few waves more burst over him, and he would become a wreck.

“Nor was the tempest long a-coming. That which no human power could avert, or have averted, was at hand. The famine fell on Ireland. Instantly O’Connell strove all he could to prepare the people for it; he sank all political feeling; he raised his voice, now feeble, to promote union. He thought he saw in this calamity the hope of a better future, when exasperated parties might meet on the common ground of charity, and the feuds and quarrels which disgraced his country, might be lost sight of in one pervading nationality. But, alas! this was forbidden him. The work was not yet complete, and he was not to live to complete it. We always believed in O’Connell’s heart, and now, we believe, he was heart-broken. At length, nature refused to sustain him longer. He sought to lay himself at the feet of the Pope. But it was not to be. A poor, weak, feeble old man, was now this miracle of energy and power, and the choice even was denied him where to die. His body to Ireland—his heart to Rome!” S.

JAMES KENT.

This eminent jurist died at New York the 12th of December, 1847, in the 85th year of his age. He was born in Dutchess County, New York, the 31st July, 1763. His grandfather was a Congregationalist minister—his father was a lawyer. He graduated at Yale College, and studied law with Egbert Benson, Attorney-General of New York. He was then, as afterwards, studious and temperate—never indulging in fashionable pleasures—and was ad-

mitted to the bar in 1787. In 1798, he was appointed a Justice of the Supreme Court, when he commenced the practice of delivering written argumentative opinions, supported by legal authorities; and hence the series of recorded judicial decisions which have enriched the jurisprudence of New York.

In connection with Judge Radcliffe, he revised the statutes of the state in 1800. In 1804 he was appointed Chief Justice, and in 1814 he received the appointment of Chancellor. In 1824, having arrived at the age of sixty, the constitutional limit of service in New York, he left the bench, and was appointed Law professor in Columbia College. In 1826 appeared the first volume of his admirable "Commentaries on American Law."

Chancellor Kent was an exemplary Christian, and sustained an excellent reputation in all the relations of life. His works were highly esteemed in Europe as well as in America; and as evidence of which, the Chief Justice of England, Baron Denman, wrote to him some years since, acknowledging the indebtedness of the legal profession for his able commentaries. From the many tributes of respect paid the memory of this great man, we select an eulogium pronounced by a citizen of another state—himself a learned and distinguished man—Horace Binney, Esq., of Philadelphia.

"It is not for me," said Mr. Binney, "nor is this the occasion, to trace the entire life of the late Chancellor Kent. A sketch of his many services to his profession must be reserved to others. I cannot offer the resolutions without some allusion to the useful career of this eminent man. We first hear of him as a Judge of the Supreme Court of New York; it will be fifty years from the time of his appointment in February next. Four or five years after, he was appointed Chief Justice, and continued to administer justice, and, in fact, established the reputation of the court, not only in his district, but through the United States and the world. But it was chiefly as Chancellor that his reputation was acquired. His usefulness was particularly directed for the benefit of the young. He deserved to be called the father of American Equity. His decisions are a school for the young practitioner. They stand like great works in the studio of an artist. His commentaries upon the law are immortal. As a jurist, his views were sound, liberal and comprehensive. He was not only all this, but when you go into a view of his private character, there was no shade, not the shadow of a shade, to dim the picture. His integrity was as pure as a child's. There was no man more simple; he appeared to be the only one who was not aware of his own greatness; he believed himself to be best suited for a private life, and when most at home he was most happy."

S.

SILAS WRIGHT.

The sudden death of this distinguished statesman, on the 27th day of August, 1847, produced a profound sensation throughout the United States. Possessed of a strong and vigorous mind, with popular talents of the highest order, and a manner calm, simple and unaffected, he was greatly esteemed and respected by men of all parties.

“Mr. Wright was born in the town of Amherst, Mass., on the 24th day of May, 1785. The subsequent year his father and family removed to Vermont. In 1815, he graduated at Middlebury College, in that State, and in the fall of that year removed to New York, to commence the study of law at Sandy Hill. In the fall of 1823, he was elected to the State Senate, from St. Lawrence county. In 1826, he was elected to Congress. In 1829, he was chosen State Comptroller, to which office he was, in 1832, re-elected by the Legislature. In 1833, he was chosen United States Senator, to which office he was re-elected in 1837, for the term of six years. In 1843, he was again re-elected, and in 1844, was called from the Senate to take the post of Governor, on which he entered on the 1st of January, 1845, and from which he retired on the 1st of January, 1847. He died, aged 52 years.”

An eminent divine has pronounced his eulogium in these words:

“Silas Wright never occupied a station he did not honor. In his college life, his characteristic modesty was associated with the powers of a young giant. His first effort at the bar so strongly contrasted itself with his unpretending manner, and, I may add, his plain and rustic appearance, that it was hardly less triumphant than a similar one by Patrick Henry, and it called forth a like admiration from the spectators. In the Senate chamber of the United States, no man rose, in his own peculiar element, higher than he. His simple, straight forward presentation of his subject—his clear elucidation of its essential parts and intrinsic materials—his eloquence of *thought*, clothed in words only as its transparencies, and not as its embellishments—his logic, unmingled with sophistry—his direct and undisguised method of approaching and compassing his end—his courtesy in debate, a bright and perfect model for deliberative assemblies—which rendered him a safe friend and ally, and a fair and respected opponent—have built for him a monument that will outlast the marble. These qualities of intellect and heart are identified with thought and memory, and will live among the imperishable treasures of mind, in the generations which are to succeed us in this republic. A patriot more pure and unostentatious—a statesman more sagacious and far-seeing—a friend of human rights and

of an unshackled and universal freedom, more tried and firm, never trod our soil or breathed our air."

Mr. Wright was very much attached to agricultural pursuits, and to the quiet retired life of the country. He resided in Canton, St. Lawrence county, New York, and lived in the most plain and unostentatious manner. During the intervals of public duty, he was a practical farmer. Beloved and respected by his neighbors, he was always welcomed on his return home by the old and the young, the rich and the poor, who flocked to receive him.

His political opinions partook of the ultra cast, and were therefore violently assailed by his political opponents. His sincerity does not seem to have been questioned, and he was without doubt a republican in practice as well as profession. The Democratic Convention of the Union, before the last election, solicited him to accept the nomination to the Vice Presidency; and, it is stated on good authority, that the President offered him a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court. Both these offers he declined. S.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

The subject of this notice was one of the most remarkable men of the age. He was born at Braintree, in Massachusetts, July 11, 1767, and was the son of John Adams, the second President of the United States. In early life he accompanied his father to Europe, and at the age of 14, was taken by Mr. Dana, Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia, as his private secretary. He afterwards returned to America, graduated with distinguished honor at Harvard University, in 1787, and studied law with Chief Justice Parsons. In 1794, he was appointed by General Washington Minister to the United Netherlands, and in 1797, Minister to Prussia. In 1801, he returned home, having first concluded an important treaty of commerce at Berlin. In 1803, he was chosen Senator in the Congress of the United States. Having resigned his seat in that body, he was appointed Professor of Rhetoric in Harvard University. His lectures attracted great attention, for Mr. Adams cultivated the graces of elocution, had a profound knowledge of the sciences, of ancient and modern languages, and of the history and literature of all nations. In 1809, Mr. Madison nominated him Minister Plenipotentiary to Russia. His energetic and faithful discharge of this trust, produced a most favorable impression. Mr. Adams was at the head of the commission which negotiated at Ghent, in 1815, the peace with England. The commission consisted of John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Jonathan Russel, Albert Gallatin, and Henry Clay. At the conclusion of

this negotiation, Mr. Adams was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to St. James. In 1817, he was called home, and took the place of Secretary of State, in the cabinet of Mr. Monroe. In the fall of 1824, he was a candidate for the Presidency. Andrew Jackson received 99 votes, John Quincy Adams 84 votes, Wm. H. Crawford 41 votes, and Henry Clay 37 votes. The election was thus thrown into the House of Representatives, and Mr. Adams having received on the first ballot the vote of thirteen states, was declared duly elected. In 1829, when his term of office expired, he retired to his family mansion in Quincy, and in 1831, was chosen to represent in Congress the district in which he lived. He continued an active member of the House of Representatives until his decease, which happened Feb. 23d, 1848, in his 81st year. He was struck by death whilst at his seat in the House, and exclaimed, "This is the end of earth,—I am content." Removed to the speaker's room, he died there.

Mr. Adams was remarkable for his industry and regularity. He was naturally of an impetuous temper, and in the decline of life is said to have lamented the indulgence of it. He was a strict attendant upon religious services—a reverent student of the Bible. We conclude our notice of this eminent citizen with an extract from the remarks made by Senator Benton on the occasion of his decease.

"In this long career of public service, Mr. Adams was distinguished not only by faithful attention to all the great duties of his station, but to all their less and minor duties. He was not the Salaminian galley, to be launched only on extraordinary occasions, but he was the ready vessel, always launched when the duties of his station required it, be the occasion great or small. As President, as cabinet minister, as minister abroad, he examined all questions that came before him, and examined all in all their parts, in all the minutæ of their detail, as well as in all the vastness of their comprehension. As Senator, and as a member of the House of Representatives, the obscure committee room was as much the witness of his laborious application to the drudgery of legislation, as the halls of the two Houses were to the ever-ready speech, replete with knowledge, which instructed all hearers, enlightened all subjects, and gave dignity and ornament to debate.

"In the observance of all the proprieties of life, Mr. Adams was a most noble and impressive example. He cultivated the minor as well as the greater virtues. Wherever his presence could give aid and countenance to what was useful and honorable to man, there he was. In the exercises of the school and of the college—in the meritorious meetings of the agricultural, mechanical, and commercial societies—in attendance upon Divine worship—he gave the punc-

tual attendance rarely seen but in those who are free from the weight of public cares.

“Punctual to every duty, death found him at the post of duty; and where else could it have found him, at any stage of his career, for the fifty years of his illustrious public life? From the time of his first appointment by Washington, to his last election by the people of his native town, where could death have found him but at the post of duty? At that post, in the fullness of age, in the ripeness of renown, crowned with honors, surrounded by his family, his friends and admirers, and in the very presence of the national representation, he has been gathered to his fathers, leaving behind him the memory of public services which are the history of his country for half a century, and the example of a life, public and private, which should be the study and the model of the generations of his countrymen.”

S.

TRIAL OF DR. COOLIDGE.

The trial of Dr. Valorus P. Coolidge, for the murder of Edward Mathews, took place the 14th of March, 1848, at Augusta in Maine, before Chief Justice Whitman, and two associate justices.

The respectable position in society held by the prisoner, and the singular atrocity of the crime with which he was charged, excited unusual interest; so much so, that to accommodate the large number desirous of hearing the trial, the court was induced to transfer its sittings from the court-house to a very capacious church, which was filled as soon as the doors were thrown open.

The trial lasted an entire week, and the number of witnesses examined amounted to about seventy. From this voluminous mass of testimony it appeared that Dr. Coolidge was a physician in the town of Waterville, in a very successful practice, notwithstanding which he was always in need of money, and borrowed it wherever he could, and commonly at usurious interest. More than a dozen witnesses stated that he was indebted to them for money lent, from fifty to three or four hundred dollars, and that about the time of Mathews' death, he offered \$500 for the use of \$2,000 for six months, and even for a still shorter time.

It further appeared that the prisoner knew that Mathews had gone to Brighton with a drove of cattle; that he made repeated inquiries of the amount Mathews would receive, and requested the barkeeper of the house where Mathews boarded, to let him know when Mathews returned. Mathews arrived on Saturday, the 25th of March, but Coolidge did not see him until the following Wednesday. There

were several private interviews between him and Coolidge on Wednesday and Thursday. In the afternoon of the latter day, he received \$1500 from the Taconic Bank, and after eight o'clock at night, remarked that it was time to go to Dr. Coolidge's office, and was seen to go in that direction. The next morning he was found dead, in the cellar in which Dr. Coolidge kept his fuel. Two deep cuts were found on his head, some black and blue spots about his throat, and his boots were clean, though the streets were muddy at the time.

At the Coroner's inquest, Coolidge was examined with other witnesses, and he stated that Mathews had been at his office twice the day before, for the purpose of borrowing \$200, which he wanted to make up the sum of \$2,000 he had promised to raise. The last time it was a little after eight o'clock at night, when he received the money—of which one hundred dollars was in a note he had received of W. R. Doe. Denied that he had written any note to Mathews the day before, or at any time.

There was then a *post-mortem* examination of the body, when Coolidge, remarking that they could not tell whether the wounds in the head were sufficient to produce death, unless the scalp was turned back, cut and turned back the scalp. It being then proposed to examine the stomach, it was taken out by Coolidge, and the contents emptied into a basin. They smelt strong of brandy. A few minutes afterwards he remarked to a bystander that they had better be removed, as they might scent the room. They were accordingly taken out, and after remaining awhile behind an old hogshead, were locked up in an ice-house; whence they were taken, on the following Monday, and delivered to Professor Loomis for examination. When Coolidge was asked, on Friday evening, if the contents of the stomach had not better be examined, he inquired of the witness if they had been preserved, and on being told that they had, he replied, they had lain so long, nothing could be ascertained from them.

These contents were carefully analyzed by Professor Loomis, and found to contain prussic acid by several tests. Several physicians, who were present at the post-mortem examination, also testified that the liver, lungs, spleen, and brain, indicated the action of prussic acid, and that they perceived its peculiar odor.

The medical men farther thought that the wounds in the head not having been attended with inflammation, were probably given after death, with the view of preventing suspicion of the real cause.

From these indications of the presence of prussic acid, and other circumstances, Coolidge was now strongly suspected of the murder, and was accordingly taken into custody. It was then found, and it was proved in court, that, on the 17th of September, he had written

to Boston for an ounce of hydrocyanic (prussic) acid, "as strong as it can be," which he received: and that, on the 19th of September, he also wrote to Hallowell for an ounce of the same acid, "as strong as it is made." This acid, when used in medicine, is commonly diluted to 2 per cent. The pure acid is seldom called for. Dr. Coolidge previously had by him some of the diluted acid.

On Monday, after the murder, a boy found in the top of Coolidge's sleigh, a gold watch and chain, which were proved to be the same as those worn by Mathews the Thursday before. They were wrapped up in white paper, which was of the same description as some found in Coolidge's office.

Coolidge endeavored to persuade two witnesses to conceal from the coroner's inquest that he wished to borrow money of them—having himself stated to the jury that, so far from wishing to borrow money, he had *lent* Mathews \$200, and to one witness he proposed to give fifty dollars, and declared he was a ruined man, when he found he could not succeed.

Many minor circumstances corroborated the inference from the preceding strong facts, but the testimony of Thomas Flint removed every shadow of doubt of the prisoner's guilt.

The witness was a student in Dr. Coolidge's office, and he stated that, about nine o'clock on Thursday night, when he was going to bed, at his boarding house, he met Dr. Coolidge, who requested the witness to go to his office with him. When there, he said, "I am going to reveal to you a secret which involves my life; that cursed little Edward Mathews came in here, and went to take a glass of brandy and fell down dead; he now lies in the other room. I thumped him on the head to make people believe he was murdered." After some consultation, they decided on carrying the body to the cellar, to remain there until it was discovered the next day. The next day he found in the office a note from Coolidge, requesting him to sweep the office carefully, which he did, and removed some signs of blood. About noon he saw Coolidge charge Mathews with \$200 lent. Coolidge handed him a sum of money, requesting him to keep it, saying the jury might ask to see his pocket book, and he did not know but there was too much money in it. After the examination of the body, Coolidge told the witness, while in the office together, that there was \$1,000 under the carpet, beneath the iron safe, which he wished witness to take care of. In the evening the prisoner seemed to be greatly agitated. He took the money he had given witness, selected some of the bills, put them into his pocket book, and gave the witness others from the pocket book. The money was put in one of a number of jugs in the office, and the prisoner requested the witness to sleep with him that night. The next day he seemed unwilling to receive back the money he had given to the

witness, but afterwards went to the office, broke the jug, and threw the notes into the stove. He stated that a letter produced to the coroner's jury (from Coolidge to Mathews, requesting the latter to call at his office on Thursday night), he had withdrawn "from the bag" on Friday night and destroyed. He told the witness there was a bottle at the office that had contained prussic acid, which ought to be destroyed, and that the bottle which had come from Boston should be filled up, for some of it had been used. He also desired that the brandy bottle should be rinsed, and the water in the sink thrown out. He requested the witness to take the watch from his sleigh, and throw it into the river. Witness slept with the prisoner the two or three following nights, and when he did not, believes that Mr. Baker did. The witness admitted that when before the grand jury, he did not state anything about the money, the watch, or washing out the stains from the floor. He had partly disclosed to his father the facts stated to-day, and also to Mr. Baker. General Simons, his father, had encouraged him to testify in the case.

In consequence of this variance in Flint's testimony, the counsel for the prisoner endeavored to invalidate it; the jury, however, after a deliberation of twenty-four hours, returned a verdict of guilty, and the prisoner was sentenced to be hanged, after the expiration of a year, spent in hard labor. The law of Maine, by a seeming compromise between those who would abolish, and those who would retain capital punishments, has thus postponed the execution of the sentence of death, that the person convicted may profit by subsequent evidence, so as, if not to establish his innocence, to raise sufficient doubts of his guilt to obtain a pardon; or he may effect his escape by force or artifice, or finally escape ignominious punishment by disease or suicide.

T.

THE FEDERAL JUDICIARY.

We have been permitted to make the following extract from the *Hon. John C. Spencer's* examination of *Judge Upshur's* review of the constitution of the United States. We hope hereafter to give entire both these able papers.

* * * * * By the very terms of this compact (the constitution), this right of each State to interpret it for itself, has been expressly waived in favor of the federal judiciary. No language which I could employ would so clearly state this position as that of M. de Tocqueville. The "attributes of the federal government," he says, "were, therefore, carefully enumerated, and all that was not included among them, was declared to constitute a part of the

privileges of the several governments of the States. Thus the government of the States remained the rule, and that of the confederation became the exception. But as it was foreseen that in practice questions might arise as to the exact limits of this exceptional authority, and that it would be dangerous to submit those questions to the decision of the ordinary courts of justice established in the States by the States themselves, a high federal court was created, which was destined, among other functions, to maintain the balance of power which had been established by the constitution between the two rival governments." "To suppose," he remarks in another place, "that a State can subsist, when its fundamental laws may be subjected to four-and-twenty different interpretations at the same time, is to advance a proposition alike contrary to reason and to experience. The object of the erection of a federal tribunal, was to prevent the courts of the States from deciding questions affecting the national interests in their own department, and so to form a *uniform* body of jurisprudence for the interpretation of the laws of the Union." The supreme court of the United States was, therefore, invested with the right of determining all questions of jurisdiction. And to effect this purpose, can language be more clear and explicit than that of the second section of the third article?—"The judicial power shall extend to *all* cases in law and equity arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made under their authority, to controversies to which the United States shall be a party," &c.

If it *extends* to them, it must be for the purpose of deciding them, not for the purpose of referring them to some other power or tribunal. It has already been shown, it is supposed, that this description necessarily comprises every case that can possibly arise, involving the exercise of the federal power. Every such case must be founded on a claim that it springs from the authority given by the constitution, and then the courts must decide whether it "arises under the constitution." If it does not, it must be dismissed. If it does, the courts must entertain and decide it. And it is somewhat extraordinary that this very power is conceded by Mr. Upshur in a previous part of his remarks: "So far, therefore, as the federal constitution has provided for the subject at all, the supreme court is beyond question, the *final* judge, or arbiter; and this, too, whether the jurisdiction which it exercises be legitimate or usurped." These are his words, and they afford a complete and perfect answer to the qualification he makes of the right of each State to interpret the constitution for itself, "unless it has clearly waived that right in favor of another power." If, then, the federal constitution has provided for the subject in the way he states, and if the States have assented

to that provision by adopting the constitution, have they not "waived the right of interpreting it in favor of another power?"

But Mr. Upshur says that it is not waived, and this, he says, is apparent from the fact "that, if the judiciary be the sole judges of the extent of their own powers, their powers are universal, and the enumeration in the constitution is idle and useless." Now, with deference be it said, this is very inconclusive. The liability of any power to abuse to gross perversion, does not, in sound minds, tend in the least to prove its non-existence. The same remark which Mr. Upshur makes in reference to the judiciary, is still more applicable to the States. If they are "the sole judges of their own powers, their powers are universal," and the grant of authority to the federal government, or the judiciary, is "idle and useless." The question, however, still remains, whether the power has been granted? The object of all political compacts and constitutions is to produce and preserve peace, and to prevent wars by providing a mode of final settlement peaceably by an independent tribunal. Every umpire may err; may enlarge its jurisdiction, and take cognizance of what is not submitted to it. In the formation of a constitution, the question is open, whether it is better to incur this hazard than the opposite one, of having nothing finally settled? And this was the very question which the framers of our constitution considered, and debated, and decided, and this decision having been ratified by the States, as well as by the people of the United States, it is too late to seek to evade it, by questioning its wisdom. Mr. Upshur, however, persists in falling back on principles anterior to the constitution, instead of looking to that instrument alone; and he urges that the federal government is the creature of the States; that it is a mere agent, with limited powers, and then asks—"Shall the agent be permitted to judge of the extent of his own powers without reference to his constituents?" To a certain extent, he is compelled to do this, in the very act of exercising them, "but this is always in subordination to the authority by whom his powers were conferred." Besides, the fallacy, as it is believed to be, that the federal government is the creature of the States as distinguished from the people of the States, there is a fundamental error in considering the judiciary as an *agent* to exercise certain political powers—as a mere attorney, in fact, to perform certain delegated functions, and as being subordinate to the States, by whom it is intended to be implied the judicial power was conferred. It is conceived that its functions are of a character entirely different.

As its very name imports, it is to *adjudge*, not execute, nor legislate. It is the means by which disputes and controversies are to be terminated, without a resort to force. It is the contrivance of civilization, to prevent a recurrence to the law of nature. It is the last

and strongest link which unites the ends of the chain of civil government, and renders that complete, which, without it, would not deserve the name of civil government. So far from partaking of the nature of agents, or being subordinate to the authority which conferred their power, the judiciary are, by the constitution, rendered wholly independent of their constituents, who cannot revoke or annul the authority once granted; and instead of being subordinate, they are by the same instrument placed above those who created them, and administer the law to them and to all others. Even controversies between states are subjects of their jurisdiction. What becomes, then, of this idea of their being agents, and bound to make "reference to their constituents" to determine the extent of their powers?

MEDICAL INTELLIGENCE.—REFORM.

During the present year, very important improvements have been made in the matter of medical reform, and for the purpose of presenting their original scope and extent, we give below a summary of the proceedings of the National Medical Convention, also of the Pennsylvania State Convention, and of the New York Academy of Medicine. The subject is one of deep interest to the community.

The American Medical Association.—The third annual meeting of this body was held at Baltimore, May 2d, 1848. Two hundred and forty-seven delegates were present, representing the following states, viz: New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, South Carolina, Louisiana, Texas, Georgia, Missouri, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee and Ohio; also delegates from the medical corps of the army and navy.

The adulteration of drugs, the use and abuse of chloroform, and the measures necessary to remedy the evils in the preparation of medicines and in the practice of the profession, were prominent subjects of discussion.

The officers elected for the ensuing year, are: Dr. A. H. Stevens, of New York, President; Dr. Samuel Jackson, of Philadelphia, Dr. John C. Warren, of Boston, Dr. Paul T. Eve, of Augusta, Georgia, and Dr. Wm. M. Awl, of Columbus, Ohio, Vice Presidents; Dr. Alfred Stillé, of Philadelphia, and Dr. H. J. Bowditch, of Boston, Secretaries, and Dr. Isaac Hays, of Philadelphia, Treasurer.

The report on education stated that the annual number of physicians created by the medical schools throughout the Union, is fifteen hundred, a number exceeding the demand.

We are indebted to Dr. R. H. Townsend, who was present at the meeting, for a copy of the following recommendation, adopted, and addressed to the medical schools in the United States.

“The association, desirous of promoting the health and welfare of the people of their common country, do most respectfully recommend to the professors of all the schools in the United States, a more uniform and more elevated standard of requirements for the degree of medicine; that they will make daily or weekly examinations as the best means of ensuring the attendance of the class upon the lectures, and that they will introduce into the board of examiners in such colleges, as do not already possess such a check, a sufficient number of gentlemen of the profession, not engaged in teaching, to ensure that the requirements will be honestly enforced in every case.”

On the 11th of April last, the *State Medical Convention of Pennsylvania*, assembled at Harrisburg.

The constitution of “the State Medical Society” was adopted. The objects of the society are declared to be “the advancement of medical knowledge, the elevation of professional character, protection of the interests of its members, and the promotion of the health of the community.” One of the sections declares that “any physician who shall procure a patent for a surgical instrument or remedy, or who sells or deals in patent medicines or nostrums without understanding or knowing their composition, shall be disqualified from being a member of the society.”

The attendance at the convention was very large and respectable, and Dr. Samuel Humes, of Lancaster, was elected President of the state society.

At the annual meeting of the “*New York Academy of Medicine*,” recently held in that city, the great subject of Medical Reform was the prominent topic of discussion. The able and learned *Dr. John W. Francis* delivered the anniversary discourse, from which we make the following extracts, setting forth the main design of the institution:

“A remarkable characteristic of our Republic is *Association*, and this powerful agent we find brought to our cognizance by numerous examples; our social system abounds in it; and we are compelled to yield to its inherent operation, though, perhaps, remotely connected with its proximate designs. This principle of association, however, has for the most part been applied more especially to self-improvement, and the augmentation of knowledge, to eleemosynary and charitable designs, or to fiscal experiments. It is on the broad platform of the first of these three objects, that we are here assembled.—In the present instance, an organization has been formed, the distinctive feature of which is, that it is the inevitable result of the wants of the profession itself, and of the community at large. An Academy of Medicine in this city was a moral necessity; it was demanded by the daily increasing perversion of a noble science, by the sullied

dignity of an honorable vocation, by the predominance of evils of saddest issues, and by the long neglected claims of injured humanity. This language cannot, I apprehend, be deemed too forcible, when contemplating the condition of practical medicine, in this our own day and generation. Yes, the venerable art of the physic, rich with the achievements of the mightiest intellects, and the accumulated wisdom of more than two thousand years, with its divine claims of origin, and its vast train of blessings in our behalf, seems threatened with distrust of its noble capabilities, to have lost of its repute as a disciplined science among us, and to have surrendered its long-earned resources to the specious appearances and absurd practices which the necromancers and zealots of the darkest ages might hesitate to tolerate. How sadly such a condition of the profession harmonizes with the great objects of the sacred art! Philosophy can scarcely abide the reflections which spring from an examination of the causes which have led to the formation of the Association of the disciples of Æsculapius in behalf of their cherished science. That ignorance of the laws of life, of the rule of health, and of the remedial powers of medicinal substances, prevails to a wonderful degree, even in exalted places, is an incontrovertible position; and hence the innumerable calamities which popular delusion in the curative art entails. Most unfortunately for its victims, like fraud in fiscal concerns, it has a wider influence in its effects than with the immediate objects with whom it traffics. Its dire malignity is often extended through a large circle of the unconscious and unsuspecting."

* * * * *

"The influence of this Academy, it is hoped, will contribute in no small measure to destroy the casuistry which sometimes insinuates itself in discussions among minds of limited grasp, on the supposed ultra-conservative tendency in medicine. It will unfurl the banner of philosophy, and in the march for truth, allow every one to pursue the path he deems best for its attainment. Free discussion will be cherished in good faith, as the light thus emanating imparts the purest lustre, and detects error in its most hidden recess. *It will exult in discovery.* It will be vigilant in investigation, and strive in all becoming ways to discriminate the true from the false, the certain from the conjectural, the indeterminate from the definite."

It is unquestionably true that these demonstrations on the part of the leading medical men of the country are imperiously demanded by the increasing abuses in the practice of medicine and the sale of drugs. With respect to the latter, the recent developments are astounding, as will appear from the following statement:

Adulteration of Medicine.—From a printed circular by the Trustees of the College of Pharmacy, New York, the following passages are cited in the last issue of the *American Journal of Science and Arts*:—Blue pill is imported, containing a per centage of mercury from ten down to seven and a half, mixed with blue clay and Prussian blue—to give the proper design and color. Two importations of this kind from the manufactory of William Bailey of Wolverhampton, have already been exposed—the first in 1845, and the other recently. Its composition, according to the analysis of our Professor Reid, is, mercury, earthy clay, Prussian blue used in coloring, sand in combination with the clay, soluble saccharine matters, insoluble organic matters, and water.

Very large quantities of rhubarb, much decayed, the better parts of which are dark colored, with scarcely any taste or smell, having probably been exhausted to make extracts, come from England, invoiced there from 1½ to 3 pence sterling per lb. It is intended and used for powdering, color being given to it by turmeric, &c.

The article called oxide of zinc on the English labels is generally carbonate

of zinc, being imported, it is said, at a price which precludes the possibility of honest preparation.

All that is received under the name of precipitated sulphur—or “lac sulphur,” as the merchants commonly term it—except when it is expressly ordered, from an honorable manufacturer, contains from 80 to 95 per cent. of sulphate of lime.

Opium is often invoiced at *one-third* the value of good quality, and is found, upon examination, not to be worth even that. The same may be said of scammony. Most of the foreign extracts are not what they profess to be, and cannot be relied upon in the treatment of disease. The salts of quinine, morphine, and all the more costly chemicals, are greatly adulterated.

The agent of an English manufacturer of chemicals, extracts, and many other preparations used in medicine, has said—and his remarks are in print—that it is a regular and systematic business, carried on by his principal and others in his line, to make articles for the American market of different qualities—one for the Atlantic cities, and another, very much inferior, for the West; meaning thereby our Western States. He gives us, for instance, the following quotations: “Compound extract of colocynth, 9s. 6d.; do. for the West, 5s.”—the latter, as we are allowed to infer, containing no scammony, only the poorest sort of aloes, and but little, if any, colocynth, or extract from it. Again we have: “Blue pill, 3s. 9d.; for the West, 1s. 8d.”

It is wonderful, remarks *Silliman's Journal*, that such uncommon doses as we hear of, are taken, and, indeed, required, at the West, and that disappointment is everywhere experienced by physicians in the action of medicines. And these examples are but few out of many that might be given.

A stringent law, rigidly enforced, should at once be applied to the removal of this monstrous evil.

RELIGIOUS INTELLIGENCE.

Denominations in the United States. Estimated Number of Churches and Clergy.

	No. Churches.	Ministers.
Baptists,	13,673	8,255
Methodists,		6,942
Albright or Evangelical,	650	250
Presbyterian,	4,868	3,496
Congregational,	1,728	1,675
Unitarian,	300	250
Episcopalian,	1,232	1,373
Roman Catholics,	812	834
Lutherans,	1,232	501
German Reformed,	750	191
Universalists,	1,044	700
Unitarian Baptists,	650	782
Dutch Reformed,	279	271
German Methodists,		500
Swedenborgians,	42	30
Mormonites,	400	250
Moravians,	22	24
Friends,	400	
Jews,	150	

The annual receipts, in 1847, of the *American Bible Society*, were

of the American Tract Society,	\$205,068
“ Board of Foreign Missions,	160,131
“ American Home Missions,	209,365
“ American Sunday School Union,	116,768
“ Protestant Episcopal, Foreign and Domestic,	139,686
“ Baptist Foreign and Home Missions,	53,992
“ Presbyterian, do. do.	109,645
“ Methodist Mission,	113,968
	78,934

AID TO THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH IN AMERICA.

The association (in Europe) for the propagation of the faith, have granted to the missions in America, this year: \$5000 to the Bishop of Dubuque; \$6000 to the Bishop of Detroit; \$4000 to Bishop of Cincinnati; \$3000 to Bishop of Philadelphia; \$3000 to Richmond; \$4000 to Bishop Hughes, New York; \$1000 to Priests of Mercy, New York; \$2000 to Hartford; \$3000 to Nashville; \$3000 to Louisville; \$8000 to Bishop of Vincennes, and \$3000 to congregation of Holy Cross, same diocese; \$6000 to St. Louis; \$2250 to Milwaukee; \$3500 to Bishop of Little Rock; \$7500 to Bishop Quarter at Chicago; \$3500 to Natchez; \$4750 to New Orleans; \$7500 to Mobile; \$8000 to Charleston; \$6000 to Lazarists in the United States; \$2150 to Society of Jesus, Missouri; \$9000 to Society of Jesus in Rocky Mountains; \$760 to Dominicans in do.; \$10,000 to Dr. Odin, Vicar Apostolic, Texas; \$3000 to Jesuit missions in America; \$26,000 to West Indian and South American missions; \$11,000 to the Archbishop of Oregon city; \$4000 to Vicar Apostolic, Hudson's Bay; \$26,000 to British American missions; \$11,500 to Oblats, Canada, and Hudson's Bay; \$6000 to Jesuits in Canada.

DECREASE OF THEOLOGICAL STUDENTS.

A gradual decrease, for several years past, of candidates for the ministry in the Old School Presbyterian church, is noticed with some expressions of alarm, by the Presbyterian treasury. In 1844, there were 364 students in the various stages of education, preparing for the ministry of that church; in 1846, there were but 339. In the same time there was a diminution of new candidates from 99 to 67.

To show this relative deficiency, the Treasury remarks that the Free Church of Scotland, with about 700 ministers and 800 congregations, has nearly as many theological students as the Old School church, which has 1700 ministers, and 2400 congregations. A like decrease is asserted of the graduates of the Congregational and New School seminaries. In 1843 there were 177 graduates from these institutions, and in 1846 only 150.

We find the following account of the number of churches in the city of New York, going the newspaper rounds.

Churches in New York.—Twenty years ago (1828), when the population of New York was 200,000, the number of places for public worship, of all denominations, was 101, of which 22 were of wood. Now, with a population of about 400,000, there are 219 places of this character. The following figures show the distinction of the present church structures during the last twenty years, and relative strength.

	Epis.	Pres.	Meth.	Bap.	R. C.	Cong.
In 1828	18	20	12	14	4	0
In 1848	42	43	32	24	16	9
Inc. in 20 years.	—	—	—	—	—	—
	24	23	20	10	12	9

The denominations not embraced in this list, are unimportant as to numbers, or have remained nearly stationary.

The Pope has addressed a letter to the oriental schismatics, inviting them to return to the Roman Church, and promises to receive the clergy in their ecclesiastical rank. He has also sent a nuncio to Constantinople, Cardinal Ferrieri, who has had an audience of the Sultan, and presented to him an address.

The Sultan's reply to the Nuncio was to the following effect:—
 "I shared the general joy with which was hailed the accession of Pope Pius to the Pontifical throne. It was for the purpose of expressing these sentiments that I sent Habib Effendi to Rome. I am happy that friendly relations have been established between the States of the Catholic Church and the Ottoman empire during my reign. I fully sympathize with the Pope in what he has done for his people. Like him, I wish that civil and religious liberty should be established in my dominions; I wish all denominations of my subjects to have equal rights and privileges; I wish them to love their common country, and to look upon me as one who would govern them through their affections, and not by the exercise of arbitrary authority." On the days immediately preceding the audience

granted by his Majesty to the representative of the Holy See, deputations waited on Monsignor Ferrieri, composed of the chiefs of the Armenian and Greek Churches, and of the Israelites resident in Turkey. The object of this deputation was, besides complimenting the Nuncio on his arrival at Constantinople, to beg of His Eminence to express to the Sultan the satisfaction with which his Christian subjects of every denomination saw the proof of liberality and toleration which his Majesty gave in consenting to establish diplomatic relations with the Holy See.—*Daily News*.

PROTESTANTISM ALLOWED IN TURKEY.

Translation of a Royal Order obtained by the Right Hon. Lord Cowley, from the Sublime Porte, in favor of the Sultan's Protestant subjects.

“To His Excellency the Pasha, the Superintendent of the City Taxes.

“Whereas, the Christian subjects of the Ottoman Government professing Protestantism, have experienced difficulty and embarrassment, from not being hitherto under a separate and special jurisdiction, and from the Patriarch and heads of the sects which they have left naturally, not being able to superintend their affairs, and

“Whereas, it is in contravention to the supreme will of his Imperial Majesty, our Gracious Lord and Benefactor, (may God increase him in years and power!) animated as he is with feelings of deep interest and clemency towards all classes of his subjects, that any of them should be subjected to grievances; and

“Whereas, the aforesaid (Protestants) in conformity with the creed professed by them, do form a separate community,

“It is His Supreme Majesty's will and command, that for the sole purpose of facilitating their affairs, and securing the welfare of the said Protestants, the administration, therefore, should be henceforward confided to your Excellency, together with the allotment of the taxes to which they are subjected by law; that you do keep a separate register of their births and deaths in the department of the Control, according to the system observed with regard to the Latin Rages; that you do issue passports and permits of marriage; and that any person of established character and good conduct, chosen by them to appear as their agent at the Porte for the transaction and settlement of their current affairs, be duly appointed for that purpose.

“Such are the imperial commands, which you are to obey to the letter;

“ But although passports and the allotment of taxes are placed under special regulations which cannot be infringed, you will be careful that in pursuance of his Majesty’s desire, no assessments or taxes be exacted from the Protestants for permits of marriage and for registrations—that every necessary assistance and facility be afforded them for their current affairs—that no interference whatever be permitted in their temporal or spiritual concerns on the part of the Patriarch, Monks or Priests of other sects, but that they be enabled to exercise the profession of their creed in security; and that they be not molested one iota, either in that respect or in any other way whatever.” Signed

RESCHID, (Grand Vizier.)

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE.

JANUARY, 1848.

Jan. 1st. The College for Orphans, for which Mr. Girard appropriated so large a part of his immense fortune, went into operation this day.

Orphans are admitted into this college between the ages of six and ten. They are, between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, to be bound to some suitable person in Pennsylvania, in some one of the occupations of agriculture, navigation, the arts, mechanical trades, or manufactures, for a term not exceeding their minority.

It is understood that the fund now at the disposal of the trustees is sufficient for the support of 500 orphans, and that this sum will be steadily increasing.

2d. The steamboat Blue Bird blew up on the Ohio river, at 6 o’clock on Sunday morning, during a severe snow storm, with a tremendous explosion, reducing to a perfect wreck the cabin over the boilers. The hull sunk immediately, leaving a portion of the cabin afloat, to which the surviving passengers retreated for security. Before they were relieved, the cabin floated eight miles down the river. Of the seventy persons on board, about one-third are supposed to have perished. The defective character of the boiler, which had been in use nine years, was the cause of the explosion.

The report of the Commissioners of the General Land Office, submitted to Congress, shows that, during the year 1846, 2,273,730 acres of the public lands were sold, for the sum of \$2,904,637; and in the first, second, and third quarters of the year 1847, 1,839,024 acres have been sold for the sum of \$2,366,352.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTE.—The Vice President appointed Thomas Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, Regent, in the place of Mr. Senator Cass, who resigned. Mr. Winthrop, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, reappointed Mr. Hibbard, of Alabama, and appointed Mr. Marsh, of Vermont, and Mr. McClelland, of Michigan, to fill the places of Mr. Owen, of Indiana, and Mr. Hough, of New York, who, ceasing to be members, could not be reappointed.

FIRES AND DEATHS IN NEW YORK.—During the past year there were 264 fires. Eight persons were burnt to death, and five or six others injured.

There were 4,121 deaths, being 742 more than in 1846. Of small-pox the number of deaths was 18. In 1846, it was 90.

4th. The President ordered a Court of Inquiry for the purpose of investigating the charges against Gen. Pillow and Col. Duncan, preferred by Gen. Scott. After that investigation, the court is directed to inquire into the charges against Gen. Scott by Gen. Worth. The charges against Gen. Worth, submitted by the commanding general, have been dismissed by the President.

The court was directed to assemble at Perote, and to consist of Gen. Towson, Paymaster-General, as President, and Gen. Cushing and Gen. Butler, of Louisiana.

The command of the army devolved on Gen. Butler, of Kentucky.

10th. At Franconia, New Hampshire, the spirit in the thermometer stood at 39° below zero; and the mercury congealed in the bulb; so that, could the mercury have resisted the cold, according to observed differences between that and the spirit, the former would have stood at 45° below zero.

13th. Mr. Justice Wayne this day delivered the opinion of the Supreme Court in the case of Mrs. Gaines.

The decree of the Circuit Court of Louisiana, which had decided the case against Mrs. Gaines, was reversed, and the cause remanded to the same court, with directions that a decree shall be made, declaring that a lawful marriage was contracted in Philadelphia, between Daniel Clark and Zuline Carriere, and that Myra Clark, now Myra Gaines, is the lawful and only child of that marriage. That the said Myra is the forced heir of her father, and is entitled to four-fifths of his estate after the excessive donation in the will is reduced to the disposable quantum which the father could legally give to others; that the property described in the answer of Charles Patterson, was a part of the estate of Daniel Clark at the time of his death; that it was illegally sold by those who had no right or authority to make sale of it; that the titles given by them to the

purchaser, and by the purchaser to the defendant, Charles Patterson, including those given by the buyer from the first purchaser to Charles Patterson, are void, and that the said property is liable as a part of the estate of Daniel Clark to the legal claim of the forced heir, and that the defendant, Charles Patterson, shall surrender the same as shall be directed by the mandate of this court, amongst other things to be done in the premises.

This suit has been pending fifteen years, and the amount of property involved in the decision is estimated at fifteen millions of dollars.

The scene in court on the delivery of the decree of the court, was a thrilling one, and quite unusual before that dignified tribunal. Messrs. Clay, Webster, Jones, (the last was Mrs. Gaines' principal counsel,) and other distinguished members of the bar, were present, besides many ladies, who had come to share her feelings on the occasion, from all of whom a tide of congratulations poured in upon their victorious friend. No time was lost in telegraphing the news to General Gaines, then at New York.

14th. The steamboat Yalebushe, Capt. Scott, loaded with cotton, on her trip from Red River to New Orleans, was burnt to the water's edge, by which terrible disaster about thirty-five lives were lost.

About quarter past nine o'clock at night, when the greater part of the passengers, numbering about a hundred, including the deck passengers, had retired, the alarm of fire was given. The boat was then in the middle of the stream, and about eighteen miles below Donaldsonville. All were instantly aroused, and as the doors of the ladies' cabin were thrown open, the dense volume of steam rushing aft from the clerk's office, near which the fire originated, almost produced suffocation.

The boat was immediately rounded to and headed to the shore, and as she struck the bank, a general rush was made for the landing, when many persons were drowned in their attempts to get on shore. As the boat approached the shore, some of the passengers, with great presence of mind, seized the end of the cable, and leaping on shore, made it fast to a tree on the bank, but those on board neglecting to make the cable fast there, the boat swung out into the stream again, the engines still going, and in a few seconds was beyond the reach of those ashore. She afterwards drifted down the stream about two miles, when, striking the shore, she was made fast. Several of those who leaped overboard were saved.

15th. John Sergeant, Esq., to whose umpirage the United States Government on one side, and the State of New Jersey on the other, submitted the right to the Pea Patch Island in the Delaware, de-

cided the right to be in the United States, by virtue of the cession of the State of Delaware. The case was elaborately argued by counsel, in one of the court rooms of the State House in Philadelphia. The award is as follows:

Award.—Under and by virtue of the within agreement and submission, having heard the parties by their counsel, their proofs and allegations, and duly and deliberately considered the whole matter, and weighed the evidence and arguments on both sides, I do hereby award that the title to the Pea Patch Island is in the United States.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this fifteenth day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight, at the city of Washington.

JOHN SERGEANT, [SEAL.]

Witness—John Wm. Wallace, John M. Clayton, W. L. Dayton.

The title having been thus settled, the United States will immediately finish the important fortifications commenced on the island.

The report of Professor Bache on the coast survey shows that the progress of that work for the last year has extended into the following eighteen States on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico:—Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas. The estimates for the next year will provide for work in every State on the coast of the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico. One of the discoveries of the last year was that of a new shoal in the channel east of the “Bass Rip,” near the island of Nantucket, and of a shoal southeast from Great Point light, near the same island, dangers before unknown, and to be carefully avoided by navigators, and in the discovery of a depth of water in the channel at the entrance of Mobile bay of 20½ feet. The first discoveries are important to the foreign, West India and coasting trade; and the latter, not only to Mobile, but to the southwest generally.

From the Report of the Secretary of State to the House of Representatives, it appears that the whole number of passengers who arrived in the United States from foreign countries, during the year 1847, was 239,480.

18th. The annual meeting of the Colonization Society took place at the capitol in Washington, this evening. Mr. Clay presided, and addressed the society in a speech which was loudly applauded. He explained the original purpose of the society, which was to show the practicability of colonizing such of the African race as were in the United States, and of their capacity for self-government. He traced the progress of the colony of Liberia up to the present period, when they had formed a constitutional republic, and had become an inde-

pendent state. (They have since expressed a desire to be annexed to the United States.)

Mr. Clay was re-elected President of the Society for the ensuing year. The receipts of the society last year were \$32,134; but, \$40,000 were required. It has engaged to send out 800 emigrants during the present year.

24th. Horace Wells, dentist in New York, said to be the first who used ether in dentistry, was committed to prison for throwing vitriol on the dresses of certain street girls, on Friday evening, 21st. On Monday morning, the jailer, on opening his prison door, found him dead, sitting on his bunk, with his head resting on one corner of his cell, his right leg hanging over the side of the bunk, and the left lying straight on the mattress. Between his legs, on the mattress, lay an empty vial labeled "Pure Chloroform," a razor, and a pen-knife. The razor was fixed to a slip of wood running from the back of the blade along the handle, and fastened by a piece of wire and some threads drawn from the sacking of his mattress.

It seems, by a paper written by him a short time before his death, that, under the influence of the ether, which he was in the habit of taking, and the use of which in allaying pain he claims to have discovered, he rushed into the street and committed the act for which he was imprisoned; and in a fit of mortification for the disgrace he had incurred, and probably of the peculiar intoxication to which he was accustomed, he committed suicide.

He formerly lived at Hartford, in Connecticut, where his wife and child still are. Last year he went to Paris to establish his claim as the originator of the use of ether.

Before this occurrence, his character was said to be irreproachable, and several respectable physicians, to whom he was known, say that, on the ether and chloroform practice, he was perfectly insane.

The Congress of Venezuela exhibited this day a scene of violence and bloodshed, which seems to show that with the name and the forms of a republic, everything in that country bends to the brute law of physical force. The disgraceful occurrence alluded to, is thus excused in a letter published in one of the papers.

CARACCAS, 26th Jan., 1848.

For several years past there have been two parties in this country, contending for ascendancy and power. In 1846, one of these parties, the oligarchy, succeeded in gaining the elections for president, and appointed one of the chiefs of the war of independence, Gen. Jose Tadeo Monagas. A faction, having been formed in the Congress by a few of the most turbulent and restless spirits, then succeeded in drawing over a majority to support their plans in the chambers of representatives, for the deposal of the president and the

removal of the Congress to Puerto Cabello. This unprecedented and highly imprudent measure so exasperated the people that, after having been joined by some four or five thousand or more, who came into the city from the neighboring country, a few of them made an attack upon the chamber of representatives, and shot seven of their number.

In another letter, written at the same time, the details of the massacre are thus given:

On the opening of Congress, serious disorder commenced between several members; high words drew a great crowd; daggers were drawn, and, it is said, a member from the city—Hon. Heme-regildo Garcia—stabbed a member from Maracaibo, Hon. Antonio Salas. The scene which ensued was terrific; those that could, fled; and when the alarm reached the street, the citizens fled in terror. A body of soldiers rushed in front of the hall, firing several volleys indiscriminately into the windows. Several members reached the door, and were cut down like dogs. The wounded member, bleeding, was not recognized by the soldiers; they fell on him—his left cheek and ear were shot away—a severe cut over the head, and his head nearly severed from his body, and his body terribly mangled with bayonets. The Hon. Julian Garcia, of Caraccas, was shot through the head—the ball entering one ear and passing out at the other—all the fingers on the left hand cut off, and sixteen wounds in other parts of the body. The Hon. Juan Garcia had a sword run through his body, and fell dead. Col. Smith was badly wounded with a bayonet—several others killed, and some wounded.

Subsequently, Gen. Paez, who resides in the interior, denounced President Monagas, and raised troops to depose him. At the latest accounts, Monagas had marched into the interior with a large body of troops to watch the movements of Paez, of whose whereabouts there is no positive information.

31st. The first cord of the suspension bridge, about to be constructed by Mr. Ellet across Niagara river, just below the falls, was passed over this day.

§ It is understood that the proposal to establish a General Statistical Society for the United States, which was published in the Merchants' Magazine in November last, has been favorably received by many, who have expressed their approbation of the scheme either by private letters or communications through the press; and it is suggested by some of its well-wishers, that the large concourse of persons from a distance, who may be expected in Philadelphia on the 7th of next month, will be propitious to the organization of such a society.

FEBRUARY.

2*d.* A treaty of peace, between the United States and Mexico, was signed in the city of Mexico, by N. P. Trist on the part of the United States, and Louis O. Guivas, Bernardo Conta, and Mig. Aristan on the part of Mexico.

13*th.* The Indian ravages commenced in Yucatan. They burned several small towns, and laid siege to Valladolid. Many whites were killed, and the whole country is in a state of alarm and anarchy. The Indians are headed by two chiefs, who are guilty of great atrocities, sparing neither sex nor age. (The President has sent a message on this subject to Congress, representing the destruction of life and property to be frightful, and recommending the interference of the United States.)

15*th.* The present winter has been so mild, and there has been so little ice in Lake Erie, that one steamboat at least has lately made several trips. The steamer United States arrived at Cleveland from Buffalo, on the 9th inst. An event unparalleled in lake navigation.

21*st.* John Quincy Adams, ex-President of the United States, was seized with paralysis, while in his seat in the House of Representatives. He was able to utter little that was intelligible, except a wish to see Mrs. Adams, and that he was conscious of his approaching end. He was taken from the Representative Hall to the Speaker's room, where he soon fell into a state of unconsciousness.

23*d.* After lingering until a little after 7 o'clock in the evening, Mr. Adams breathed his last in the Capitol, where he has done duty as one of the representatives of Massachusetts ever since 1831. (See Biographical notice, p. 264.)

24*th.* The following members of the House of Representatives were appointed the committee to accompany the remains of Mr. Adams from Washington to Quincy, in Massachusetts, the place of interment.

Mr. Hudson of Massachusetts,	Mr. Gayle of Alabama,
“ Williams of Maine,	“ Brown of Mississippi,
“ Wilson of New Hampshire,	“ Morse of Louisiana,
“ Marsh of Vermont,	“ Vinton of Ohio,
“ Thurston of Rhode Island,	“ Duncan of Kentucky,
“ Smith of Connecticut,	“ Cooke of Tennessee,
“ Talmadge of New York,	“ Lincoln of Illinois,
“ Edsall of New Jersey,	“ Wick of Indiana,
“ Dickey of Pennsylvania,	“ Bowlin of Missouri,
“ Houston of Delaware,	“ Johnson of Arkansas,

Mr. Roman of Maryland,	Mr. McClelland of Michigan,
“ McDowell of Virginia,	“ Cabell of Florida,
“ Barrington of North Carolina,	“ Kaufman of Texas,
“ Holmes of South Carolina,	“ Lefler of Iowa,
“ Cobb of Georgia,	“ Tweedy of Wisconsin.

25th. Another revolution of three days took place in France, not widely different from that of 1830. The growing discontents in that country with the measures and general policy of the government, having suggested political banquets to be held throughout France on the 22d of February, the birth-day of Washington, the administration determined to put down the one which was to take place in Paris. A proclamation was accordingly made to that effect, and to enforce it, at 9 o'clock in the morning troops were ordered to demolish the preparations made for the banquet, and a guard was posted round the place selected for the celebration. At 11 o'clock, an immense crowd had assembled on the *Place de la Concorde*; another had collected near the Chamber of Deputies, and, before their purpose was known, they broke into the chamber, crying, “The reform forever!” and “Down with the King!” Marshal Beaugaud, then commanding the troops, charged the multitude, and drove them out of the hall. The people having gathered in large numbers on the bridge which connects the chamber with the *Place de la Concorde*, persisting to repeat their former cries and to sing the Marseilles hymn, the horse charged them with drawn sabres, in which some were wounded. The people became exasperated and threw stones and brickbats at the troops. They then attempted to enter the garden of the Tuileries, but were prevented by the troops, and they were also driven from the *Place de la Concorde*. Thus dispersed, they betook them to the *Champs Elysées*; seized every omnibus they met, and turned it up to aid in making barricades to prevent the passage of cavalry and artillery. They succeeded in making three barricades across the *Champs Elysées*, in spite of the troops. By the aid of the trees they cut down, and of every piece of timber or plank they could lay their hands on, they raised barricades in other streets, to the amount, perhaps, of four or five hundred. They also burnt a guard house, all the public chairs, &c., after which the night was comparatively tranquil.

The next morning found 10,000 troops in the *Place de la Concorde*; all the entrances to Paris guarded, and at every avenue to the Tuileries, and other vulnerable points, both cavalry and infantry strongly posted. In different parts of the city, conflicts ensued between the Municipal Guards and the people at the barricades, in which lives were lost on both sides. The *National Guards* of Paris everywhere showed sympathy with the people, and were sometimes on the point of collision with the *Municipal Guards*. A like sympathy was ma-

nifested by the troops of the line: hence, with the cries of "Reform forever!" "Down with Guizot!" were mingled "The National Guards forever!" "The Line forever!"

The king, finding the army not to be relied upon, thought it best to yield to the storm, and to change his ministers. As soon as this change was known, there was a general outburst of joy, and in some places, hostilities at the barricades were immediately suspended. But about eleven at night, a regiment of the line had been provoked to fire on a body of young men, headed by National Guards, and killed several, which then carried the popular excitement beyond all bounds. A solemn funeral procession, headed by some of the dead bodies in a cart, was immediately formed, and contributed to aggravate the resentment of the people.

All the morning of the next day, the 25th, the people continued to build up barricades. An armed body of them bearing the tri-colored flag, approached the troops on guard at the Hotel of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, when there was, after a short explanation, a general shaking of hands between the two parties, when the soldiers took their bayonets from their muskets, and the officers sheathed their swords. The king having now but too well ascertained that the popular ferment had not been allayed by the change of ministers, decided on abdicating in favor of his grandson, the Count de Paris. Accordingly, soon after the Chamber of Deputies assembled, this boy was led in by one of the members, and was followed by his mother, the Duchess of Orleans, and his uncles, the Dukes de Nemours and de Montpensier. The Hall was then forcibly entered by a promiscuous multitude of armed citizens and National Guards, and as soon as the agitation thereby produced was calmed, M. Dupin announced to the Chamber the king's abdication in favor of his grandson, when a voice from the gallery cried "It is too late." A brief and tumultuous discussion ensued, when it was thought prudent to withdraw the Duchess and her party by a side door, and the assembly broke up in confusion. A new meeting was then organized for the occasion by some of the Deputies and the people present, who joined in conducting Dupont de l'Eure to the chair, and the following persons were forthwith proclaimed members of a Provisional Government, viz:

Dupont de l'Eure,
Lamartine,
Arago,
Crémieux,
Ledru Rollin,
Garnier Pagès,
Marie.

The assembly then adjourned to the *Hôtel de Ville* to instal the Provisional Government, but before that took place, four other members were proposed, and finally added to the list. These were Armand Marrast, Louis Blanc, Flocon, and Albert.

On the same day, the troops having evacuated the *Tuileries*, the palace was entered by the people, who seized the throne, and having carried it in procession through the streets, burnt it, together with many articles of furniture taken from the palace. The furniture of the *Palais Royal*, the private property of the king, was also seized and burnt. With this destruction of property by some, there was exhibited a strong desire to preserve it by others. In less than two hours after, the palace was forced, guards were placed by the people over the galleries of pictures and other valuable articles, and thefts of them were threatened with death. It is even said that more than one was actually shot in the act of stealing.

The king and queen had previously left the *Tuileries*, and proceeding to the *Pont Tournant*, they there entered a one horse *Citadine* and hurried off to *St. Cloud*. Wherever they were recognized, there was no disposition shown to interrupt or molest them.

26th. The Provisional Government issued a proclamation announcing the revolution, and appointing themselves and others to the different departments of Executive Power. The Municipal Guard was dissolved, and the defence of Paris placed under the National Guard.

28th. The Duke d'Aumale, the Governor-General of Algiers, and the Prince de Joinville acknowledge the French Republic.

The funeral of the late ex-President Adams was celebrated this day at Washington.

29th. Mr. Rush, the American Minister to France, recognized the recent revolution in an address to the Provisional Government, to which M. Arago replied. A similar recognition was made on the same day by the Marquis of Normandy, the British Minister.

All the members of the Bonaparte family, then in Paris, gave in their adhesion to the Provisional Government.

MARCH.

2d. The new Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Arago, addressed a circular to the diplomatic agents of the French Republic abroad, in which all intention of making aggressions on any other government was disclaimed by France. It pointed out, at some length, the difference between France and her people at this day and in 1792. It declared that, while peace is recommended to the French people,

by its affording more security to liberty, and the permanence of the Republic, if France should be assailed, her martial genius and her strength, accumulated during so many years of peace, will render her invincible within her limits, and formidable without them. The Foreign Ministers are also instructed to declare that the treaties of 1815 are no longer in force.

3d. The ex-King and Queen of the French arrived at Brighton, in England. The king, in landing, was dressed in a green blouse and blue overcoat, borrowed of the captain of the steamer which brought him over. The royal couple, with a male and a female attendant, embarked near Tréfort in a French fishing-boat, with the intention of attempting to cross the Channel. At sea the party was picked up by the Express, a Southampton and Havre steam packet.

6th. General Price encountered, at Santa Cruz, 1,500 or 2,000 Mexicans under Governor Trias, whom he defeated, and took prisoners, and captured the place. He proceeded with the prisoners to Chihuahua. The Mexican loss was 150 killed; on the American side 5 killed, and 22 were wounded, two of whom have since died.

A deputation of 280 citizens of the United States, in Paris, addressed the Provisional Government at the *Hôtel de Ville*, in congratulation of the recent political change in France. M. Arago replied to them. The French and American flags, borne by the deputations, were then placed in the Reception Hall.

The views and policy of the Provisional Government may be inferred from the orders and decrees passed by them up to this date. They are:

1. Interdicting the meeting of the ex-Chamber of Peers.
2. Organization of a movable National Guard of twenty-four battalions.
3. Arrest and punishment of deserters.
4. Articles pledged at the *Mont Piété* to be restored to the owners—the Minister of Finance to pay the amount due on them.
5. The Tuileries to be converted into an asylum for disabled workmen.
6. Capital punishment for all political offences to be abolished.
7. Persons confined for political offences to be set free, and furnished with means to rejoin their families.
8. Suppression of the Chamber of Peers, and dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies; constitution of the Republic; every citizen to be a national guard; the liberty of the press guaranteed, and freedom of speech secured.
9. National Workshop open for the unemployed.
10. All citizens to remain in arms, and defend the barricades, until they have acquired all their rights.

11. Order to arrest the late Ministers.
12. Abolition of all titles and nobility.
13. Change of the term *regiment* to *demi-brigade*.
14. Ten days' additional time granted to pay bills throughout the Republic.
15. National Assembly to meet on the 9th April, and decree a constitution. Population to be the basis of election. Representatives of the people fixed at 900, including those of Algiers and the colonies. Suffrage to be direct and universal. All Frenchmen, twenty-one years of age, to be electors; and all of twenty-five years, to be eligible. The ballot to be secret.
16. Voters to be furnished with a ballot-list, and to vote at the principal place in each canton. No person to be a representative who has not 2,000 votes. Each representative to be entitled to an indemnity of twenty-five francs per day during the session. The National Constituent Assembly to meet on the 20th April.
17. Payment of half-year's interest on the five, four and a half, and four per cents, falling due on the 22d March, to be made at Paris from the 6th, and in the departments from the 15th.
18. Interest of *Bons du Trésor* fixed at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for those of from three to four months to run, and 5 per cent. for those of from six months to a year.
19. An act to be prepared for the immediate emancipation of the slaves of all the colonies.
20. All taxes to be collected as before.
21. A budget to be brought in, in which the system of indirect taxation shall be modified.
22. All prosecutions against the press, and for political offences, to be withdrawn; and the prisoners confined for such offences to be released.
23. The publication of any placards, without the printer's name attached, forbidden.
24. The old military titles of Generals of Brigade and Division restored.
25. The Municipal Council of Paris dissolved.
26. Discount Banks to be established.
27. The Stamp Duty on periodicals suppressed.
28. All oaths taken by public functionaries to be discontinued.
29. The persons, property, and rights of foreigners to be respected.
30. All the citizens to be armed and clothed as National Guards; those not able to provide clothing to be furnished by the Provisional Government.
31. Diminution of the hour of labor—where it was eleven to be ten, and where twelve to be eleven.

32. During the ten days preceding the convention of the primary assemblies, unstamped papers may be published.

33. The central administrations of the Department of Marine and Colonies to be organized on a new footing.

34. A gradual assimilation of the inhabitants of Algeria to those of France, to take place.

35. Property of all kinds, and works of utility, to be preserved and respected.

36. Royal residences to be sold and the proceeds applied to the victims of the revolution, and as some compensation for losses in trade and manufactures.

Decrees have also been issued changing the names of several vessels in the navy, and also the names of those of the streets which had any reference to monarchy, or the members of the fallen king's family.

8th. The Archbishop of Paris, accompanied by two Vicar-Generals, presented himself to the Provisional Government, and gave in his adhesion to the new order of things, in the name of the entire clergy of his diocese.

10th. The Treaty with Mexico, with its amendments, was ratified in the Senate by a vote of 37 against 15.

14th. Ambrose H. Sevier was appointed Envoy Extraordinary to Mexico, and Robert Walsh, Jr., Secretary of Legation.

16th. A Court of Inquiry was held in the City of Mexico, to investigate the charges brought by General Scott against General Pillow and Colonel Duncan, and by General Worth against General Scott. The next day a note was received from General Worth, stating that, as the President of the United States had done him justice, he had, "for the welfare and harmony of the service," withdrawn his charges against Major General Scott. General Scott, having stated his charges against General Pillow and Colonel Duncan, in like manner withdrew them; but General Pillow claimed to be heard in answer to the charges against him by General Scott. It is understood that the Court is to proceed in its investigation of the facts relative to the appeal of General Worth against the accusation preferred by General Scott.

17th. The censorship of the press was abolished by the King of Prussia, and all questions of libel are amenable to the ordinary tribunals. Publishers are required to affix their names to whatever they print.

The following decree was published by the king on the same day.

"We, Frederick William, by the grace of God—when on the

14th of this month we convoked our faithful States for the 27th April next, in order to adopt with them the measures for the regeneration of Germany, which we desired to propose to our faithful allies of the Germanic Confederation, and which are also necessary for Prussia, we could not have supposed that, at the same time, great events occurring at Vienna would essentially facilitate on the one hand the execution of our projects, and on the other hand would render their prompt execution indispensable. After these important events, we believe it right to declare before all, not only before Prussia, but before Germany (if such be the will of God), and before our assembled people, what are the propositions which we have resolved to make to our German confederates. Before all, we demand that Germany be transformed from a confederation of States into a Federal State. We admit that that supposes a reorganization of the Federal constitution, which can only be put into execution by the union of the princes with the people, and that in consequence, a previous federal representation must be formed of all the States of Germany, and be convoked immediately. We admit that such a federal representation renders constitutional institutions of the German States necessary, in order that the members of that representation may sit side by side with equal rights. We demand a military system of general defence for Germany, imitated, in its essential parts, from that under which our Prussian armies have conquered innumerable laurels in the wars of liberty. We demand that the German army be united under one single federal banner, and we hope to see a federal general-in-chief at its head. We demand a German flag, and we hope that in a short time a German fleet will cause the German name to be respected on near and distant seas. We demand a German federal tribunal, to settle all political differences between the princes and the States, as also between the different German governments. We demand a common right to all natives of Germany, and demand that for the future there shall no barrier be raised against commerce and industry in Germany. We demand a general Zollverein, in which the same measures, the same weights, the same commercial rights, shall draw still closer the material union of the country. We propose the liberty of the press, with the same guaranties against abuses for every part of Germany. Such are our propositions and our wishes, the realization of which we shall use our utmost efforts to obtain. We rely, with the fullest confidence, on the co-operation of our German confederates, and all the German people; we shall fortify, by their incorporation into our States, provinces which do not form part of them, when, as we suppose, the representatives of those provinces will partake of these wishes, and that the confederation will be disposed to agree to them. We hope that the realization of

our intentions will put an end to the anxiety which, to our great regret, at this moment agitates Germany, paralyzes commerce and industry, divides the country, and threatens to deliver it over to anarchy. We hope that these measures will strengthen Germany in itself, and make her respected abroad, in order that, in her united strength, Europe will find the firmest guaranty for a durable and prosperous peace. But in order that the accomplishment of our intentions may experience no delay, and that we may develop the propositions which we judge necessary for the internal constitution, we have resolved to hasten the convocation of the United Diet, and we charge the Minister of State to make that convocation on Sunday, the 2d April.”

In Austria, the popular movement begun in Vienna, spreads in the provinces. The abolition of the censorship of the press, the convocation of the States, and the promise of a constitution, have been proclaimed in all the provincial capitals, and everywhere received with the greatest enthusiasm.

At Presburg, in Hungary, as soon as the fall of Metternich was known, the event was announced to the Diet, which was then in session, and it was proposed to go immediately to the Archduke Stephen, Palatine of Hungary, and to ask the convocation of the Magnates, of which he is the president, and to adopt an address to the emperor, already voted by the Chamber of Deputies.

The chamber then went in a body to the archduke, by whom they were well received. He has forwarded the address to Vienna. The Hungarians demand the most liberal reform. M. Kossuth and 200 deputies are going to Vienna to support the prayer of the address. The emperor has conceded all. Hungary will have a separate ministry, and M. Kossuth is appointed Prime Minister. The Count Appony, Chancellor of Hungary, has resigned.

The Prince Metternich is gone to the Rhine. The princess is in Silesia. Tranquillity is restored at Vienna. The Prince Charles de Lichenstein, known for his liberal principles, has replaced the Prince of Windeschgraety as governor of the capital.

The tranquillity of the city of Dresden was troubled on the 15th. The people collected in the streets, in great numbers, demanding reform. The national guard endeavored to restore order, and occupied the approaches to the principal market-place and the adjoining streets. The circulation over the bridges was intercepted by the troops of the line, and other bodies of the same force were held ready in their barracks in case of need. Notwithstanding these precautionary and preventive measures, the disturbances were not altogether appeased. A new ministry was formed, composed of M. Braun, for Justice; Van der Pfordten, for the interior and foreign affairs; and Georgy, finance; some of the appointments are pro-

visional. This new cabinet has announced that an extraordinary diet would be convoked for the 20th, and that it had agreed with the king on the following measures:—Abolition of the censorship; a law on the liberty of the press, with an abolition of the system of caution-money; establishment of the jury system, and reform in the proceedings of the courts of justice as far as regards publicity and oral evidence; reform of the electoral law; recognition of the right of association; legal regulation of ecclesiastical affairs in a spirit of tolerance and equality; energetic co-operation for a radical reform of the Germanic Diet, with representation of the people, etc.

18th. The new Constitution of Rome was this day proclaimed by Pius IX.

The college of cardinals chosen by the Pope, is to be constituted a Senate, and the legislative body is to consist of two councils—the arch council and the council of deputies.

The pope convokes and prorogues the legislature, and dissolves the chamber of deputies. He is required to convoke a new chamber within three months, which will also be the ordinary term of the session. The members of the senate are appointed for life. The senators must be 30 years of age, and have an income of 4000 scudi or crowns per annum.

The judicial tribunals are to be independent of the government.

The czar has concentrated 150,000 troops on the border of Poland.

The following manifesto of the Emperor was received with the greatest enthusiasm:

“After the benefits of a long peace, the west of Europe finds itself at this moment suddenly given over to perturbations, which threaten with overthrow all legal power, and the whole social system, insurrection and anarchy. The offspring of France soon crossed the German frontier, and have spread themselves in every direction with an audacity which has gained new force in proportion to the confusion of the governments. This devastating plague has at last attacked our allies, the Empire of Austria and the Kingdom of Prussia, and to-day in its blind fury menaces our Russia—that Russia which God has confided to our care; but Heaven forbid that this should be. Faithful to the example handed down from our ancestors, having first invoked the aid of the Omnipotent, we are ready to encounter our enemies from whatever side they may present themselves, and, without sparing our own person, we will know how, indissolubly united to our holy country, to defend the honor of the Russian name and the inviolability of our territory. We are convinced that every Russian, that every one of our faithful subjects, will respond with joy to the call of his sovereign. Our ancient war cry—for our faith, our sovereign

and our country—will once again lead us on in the path of victory: and then, with sentiments of humble, as now with feelings of holy hope, we will all cry with one voice, God is on our side. Understand this, ye people, and submit, for God is on our side.

“Given at St. Petersburg, the 14th March, in the year of Grace, 1848, and the 23d of our reign.”

The following is the President’s decision and order in the case of Lieut. Col. Fremont, as appears by the GENERAL ORDER issued from the War Department:

“WASHINGTON, February 16, 1848.

“I have carefully considered the record of proceedings of the General Court Martial in the case of Lieut. Col. John C. Fremont, of the Regiment of Mounted Riflemen, which convened at Washington Arsenal, in the District of Columbia, on the 2d day of November, 1847, and of which Brevet Brigadier-General George M. Brooke was President.

“The Court find Lieut. Col. Fremont guilty of the following charges, viz.:

“1st. Mutiny. 2d. Disobedience of the lawful commands of his superior officer. 3d. Conduct to the prejudice of good order and military discipline; and, sentence him to be dismissed the service.”

[Here follows the recommendation by the court of Colonel Fremont to the clemency of the President.]

“Upon an inspection of the record, I am not satisfied that the facts proved in this case constitute the military crime of ‘*mutiny*.’ I am of opinion that the second and third charges are sustained by the proofs, and that the conviction upon these charges warrant the sentence of the Court. The sentence of the Court is therefore approved; but, in consideration of the peculiar circumstances of the case, of the previous meritorious and valuable services of Lieut. Col. Fremont, and of the foregoing recommendations of a majority of the members of the Court, the penalty of dismissal from the service is remitted.

“Lieut. Col. Fremont will accordingly be released from arrest, and will resume his sword and report for duty.

“JAMES K. POLK.”

On the same day Lieut. Col. Fremont resigned his commission in the army, upon the ground that he was not conscious of having done anything to merit the finding of the Court against him, and could not seem to admit its justice by accepting Executive clemency.

SUSPENSION BRIDGE ACROSS THE NIAGARA.—The first feeble beginning was made a few weeks since by sending a kite across the

Niagara with a string, which was to be used in rearing the edifice; a cord soon followed, then a stout rope, and next a hawser.

Last week a wire cable was prepared and drawn over by very simple machinery, and swung from the tops of two wooden supports raised some twenty-five feet above the level of the cliffs. The ends of the cable were securely anchored in Canada and New York, and there it hangs, a band of iron connecting firmly and lastingly these neighboring nations.

On Monday MR. ELLET, the Engineer of the bridge, crossed the river upon this wire rope, and demonstrated the safety of the new communication which he has established.

The contrivance by which this passage is effected is extremely simple and beautiful.

The cable itself swings gracefully from cliff to cliff 250 feet above the rapids. On this cable are placed two iron pulleys with grooves in their circumference; and from these pulleys is suspended an iron car or basket of commodious and graceful form.

Below this basket, and suspended by wire cords from the same pulleys, is a plank platform for carrying materials and tools.

The iron car for passengers hangs about four feet below the cable; and about twenty feet above the rock on either shore; and is approached by a stair-case leading to a landing on the supporting frames; while the platform for freight is attached by longer cords, and swings nearly level with the tops of the cliffs.

By this simple contrivance, which works smoothly and beautifully, the engineer has obtained a most convenient ferry over this hitherto impassable gulf; a ferry on which he can transport at the same time both freight and passengers, in separate cars, and make the passage in less than one-fourth the time that is consumed at any other ferry between the United States and Canada.

All this is the result of a few weeks unostentatious labors in the most inclement season of the year.

This ferry is now in constant and successful use, conveying men and things hourly from shore to shore.

Nathan Clifford was appointed by the President associate commissioner to Mexico, to avoid the risk of delaying the pending negotiation by the state of Mr. Sevier's health at this time.

20th. There have been some active operations in California. The Cyane went to San Jose, to the relief of Lieutenant Heywood, shut up by the guerillas, and an engagement ensued with great loss to the enemy. A portion of the New York regiment having also come from Upper California, they marched against San Antonio, took the place, killed a number of Mexicans, and released some American officers and men from confinement.

Louis, King of Bavaria, abdicated his throne—his son Maximilian succeeds him.

Schleswig Holstein has declared itself separated from Denmark.

23d. A murder of a singular and most atrocious kind was committed in Philadelphia. Mr. C. L. Rademacher and his wife, who resided in Fourth St., were assaulted while in bed asleep, by some person who entered the window over a shed in the rear. The assassin used sharp knives, and with demon-like ferocity stabbed both Mr. and Mrs. Rademacher. The wife was killed after a desperate struggle, and the husband shockingly wounded. A man of the name of Charles Langfeld is arrested and charged with the murder. It is supposed that his object was revenge, but that he mistook the persons; intending to wreak it on the former occupants of the dwelling, he shed the blood of individuals who were entire strangers to him.

Venice is declared a republic, and a provisional government formed.

25th. The Mexican General Valencia died. This is the general who was in command at Contreras, and on whom Santa Anna threw the blame of the reverses.

The Austrians, under General Raditsky, evacuated Milan, after a severe fight with the citizens, who at first were only armed with clubs. Raditsky has fallen back on Modena and Mantua, a strong position. The King of Sardinia, Charles Albert, entered the town, and was proclaimed King of Sardinia and Lombardy.

The Belgian legion, 2000 strong, which left Paris to make a demonstration on Belgium, was met by General Fleury, and defeated with great loss.

The King of Hanover made concessions to the people, and abolished the censorship of the press.

Sicily has effected its separation from Naples, and formed a provisional government.

Dr. V. Mott, Jr., a son of the celebrated Dr. Valentine Mott, of New York, distinguished himself at Palermo, on the side of the people, during the Sicilian revolution. A public dinner was given him and a magnificent sword presented to him. He has been appointed surgeon-in-chief of the Sicilian army.

The new constitution of the State of Illinois, recently adopted, prohibits the immigration and introduction, under any circumstances, of free negroes into the state, and provides for the imposition of a tax of two mills on every dollar's worth of property to be applied to the payment of the state debt.

APRIL.

2*d.* General Santa Anna and lady arrived at his hacienda, twenty-six miles from Vera Cruz, escorted by fifty men of the Maryland Regiment, and one hundred Mexican lancers. They embarked on the 5th, for Jamaica. He had issued a farewell address to his countrymen. The American officers who visited him were treated with great courtesy; they describe his lady as very handsome, and only twenty years old.

Dr. J. K. Martin was nominated, by the President, Charge des Affaires to Rome.

3*d.* The President sent to Congress a message, informing them of the reception of documents from Mr. Rush, the Minister at Paris, giving official information of the Revolution in France. He states that the prompt recognition of the new republic by the representative of the United States, met his full and unqualified approbation.

10*th.* A battle has been fought between the Danes and Holsteiners, at Fleurburg, with great loss of life. The loss on each side is said to be 2000. The Danish forces, 20,000. The Danes entered the city of Schleswig. The Prussians advanced to assist the people of Holstein, and drive out the Danes. The Prussian artillery was to cross the Eider on the 13th instant.

The Russian Government was adopting every possible means of defence, but with every forbearance. Military reinforcements have been sent to Paskiewitch. At Warsaw, the Poles remain quiet.

The great Chartist meeting on Kensington Common passed off peaceably, notwithstanding the immense preparations made to carry out their designs, and to march into London. The English papers state that, instead of 200,000, there were not over 20,000 assembled on the Common, and that there were 150,000 special constables enrolled to preserve the peace. The procession was not permitted to pass the bridges into the city. The monster petition of the Chartists was carried by a committee to the House of Commons, and presented by Mr. Feargus O'Connor, who stated that it was signed by 5,700,000 persons—but it was afterwards ascertained that it did not contain more than one-fourth that number—and that many of the names were fictitious.

It is said that in Italy a treaty has been concluded between the Pope and the other Italian sovereigns, having the following basis:

The Peninsula is to be divided into six great states.

1. Naples.
2. Sicily.

3. States of the Church.

4. The kingdom of Etruria, for the advantage of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, to consist of the actual Grand Duchy, and the adjoining territories of Pontremoli, Modena, Pietrasanti, and Lunigiana.

5. Lombardy, under whatever form of government the Lombards may adopt.

6. Sardinia, with an indemnity to King Charles Albert, in case Savoy should be annexed to France.

An alliance offensive and defensive between the six states.

An Italian confederation, well defended by a line of fortresses along the frontiers.

A uniform law for weights, measures, and currency.

Abolition of internal custom duties.

A diet at Rome, under the presidency of the Pope.

Such is reported to be the basis of this important treaty.

10th.—Paris was the scene of great confusion. A. M. Blanqui having taken offence at the publication of certain papers, denounced Lamartine and Marrast, and threatened to overthrow the Provisional government. The following statement is made of the affair.

“It seems that a plot was actually formed to intimidate the Provisional Government, eject M. Lamartine, M. Marrast, and other moderate members therefrom, and form a new government, consisting of Ledru-Rollin, Cabet, Blanqui, Albert, Louis Blanc, Flocon, Arago, Raspail, and Pierre le Roux. A meeting was accordingly got up at the Champs de Mars, on Sunday, with this ulterior object. Blanqui harangued the mob. However, Lamartine and Marrast, having got previous intelligence of the plot, circumvented their designs. The national guards, as well as the mobiles, were called out, and the critical state of things, which threatened a complete reign of terror, furnished the government with a pretence to call in the military, all classes now deeming the lately proscribed troops of the line as the defenders of order, life, and property. A couple of regiments were brought into Paris. Cannon, for the first time since the revolution, was placed before the Hôtel de Ville. Of the national guards of Paris, no fewer than 120,000 assembled on the quays and boulevards, joined by 40,000 of the *banlieu*, or suburbs; to these were added 20,000 of the *gardes mobiles*, and this body, between which and the national guards some jealousy had previously existed, *fraternized* as they passed each other, and their common differences were buried in oblivion. The peace of Paris was thus secured.”

The new Austrian Constitution has been published. Freedom of speech, and of the press, the right of petition, and of public meetings, are granted to every citizen.

Germany is in a state of violent commotion; riots are frequent; the revolutionary spirit pervades the whole country, and revolts and bloodshed are the consequences.

Chartist meetings are being held in various parts of England and Scotland. Ireland is in a deplorable condition. The people are supplying themselves with arms, and there is imminent danger of a civil war.

The Crown and Government Security Bill was passed in the House of Commons by an overwhelming majority.

15th.—The Court of Inquiry continued its session in the city of Mexico. Gen. Scott was still there, and it was understood the court would not adjourn for three weeks. There was still no quorum of the Mexican Congress, but the delegates present express themselves favorable to the ratification of the treaty. (The Court has since adjourned to New Orleans.)

Mr. Clifford arrived in the city of Mexico on the 11th April; Mr. Sevier, three days after.

The people of Port au Prince, Hayti, assembled at the Champ de Mars, and demanded the abolition of the Constitution of 1846, and the dismissal of the ministry. The army concurred in the demand, and the President Souloque issued a proclamation, announcing a compliance. Two parties are thus created, and the people in the south part of the island seem determined to restore the constitution.

19th.—Much excitement was produced in Washington, D. C., by the abduction of seventy slaves from that place, on board of a sloop from the North. They were retaken, and with the captain of the sloop, and the leader of the abolitionists, carried to the jail. A mob of 3,000 subsequently collected in front of the National Era, declaring their intention to remove the types. The tumult was with difficulty allayed. It is stated that fifty of the slaves have since been sold, to be transported to the extreme south.

Congratulatory meetings on the occasion of the French Revolution, have been held in many of the cities and towns of the Union; and addresses to the French government adopted with great enthusiasm.

29th.—A cargo of molasses and sugar arrived at New York, from Barbadoes, being the first importation of the kind from any British West India colony. The colonial system has been found a burden to the mother country, and the ports of the colonies are thrown open to free trade.

The expedition in search of Sir John Franklin, has reached Buffalo. Sir John set out on his voyage of discovery in 1844.

Recently, (we have not the date,) the completion of the Illinois and Michigan Canal was celebrated at Chicago. This canal connects the Mississippi with the Atlantic, by the way of the great lakes.

●
OBITUARY.

DECEMBER, 1847.

HON. TIMOTHY PITKIN died at *New Haven*, aged 82. He graduated at Yale College in 1785, and entered on the practice of the law—from 1805 to 1819 he represented his district in Congress. In 1816, he published a statistical review of the commerce of the United States, and in 1828 a political and civil History.

In *Italy*, the Arch Duchess MARIA LOUISA, formerly the consort of Napoleon, and afterwards Duchess of Parma and Placenza.

At *Washington*, D. C., HON. THOMAS L. HAMER, representative in Congress from Ohio.

At *Washington*, D. C., GOVERNOR FAIRFIELD, of Maine, late Senator.

At *Washington*, D. C., HON. EDWARD BRADLEY, representative in Congress from New York.

At *New York*, HON. JAMES KENT, in the 85th year of his age.—(See *Biographical Notice*, p. 261.)

In *New York*, DR. WAINWRIGHT, a physician, of the bite of a rattlesnake—sent to him as a present from a relative in Alabama.

JANUARY, 1848.

In *England*, the elder D'ISRAELI, author of "The Curiosities of Literature," aged 82.

At *New Orleans*, at an advanced age, BENJAMIN STORY, President of the Bank of Louisiana, worth \$1,000,000.

In *England*, ROBERT PAGE, the celebrated engraver. He died of starvation, at the age of 60. He had wealthy relatives.

At *Buffalo*, N. Y., GEN. GEORGE P. BARKER, a distinguished lawyer, and recently Attorney-General of New York.

In *Canada*, REV. J. D. PETERSON, an eminent divine of the Lutheran Church, aged 91.

In the kingdom of Hanover, the celebrated female Astronomer MISS FREDERICA HERSCHELL.

The KING OF DENMARK, in his 62d year.

In *Georgetown*, D. C., CLEMENT COX, Esq., a prominent member of the bar.

At *Washington*, D. C., HON. JOHN W. HORNBECK, representative in Congress from Pennsylvania.

FEBRUARY, 1848.

At *Raleigh*, N. C., HON. J. T. DANIEL, aged 70. One of the Judges of the Supreme Court. He held the office of Judge thirty years.

In *Virginia*, REV. WILLIAM WILLIAMS, aged 83. Had preached upwards of fifty years.

At *San Angel, Mexico*, MAJOR EDWARD WEBSTER, of the U. S. A., son of the Hon. Daniel Webster.

In the *Capitol, Washington*, HON. JOHN Q. ADAMS, of Massachusetts, aged 81.—(See *Biographical Notice*, p. 264.)

At *Baltimore*, COMMODORE CHARLES G. RIDGELEY, 64 years of age. He had been forty-eight years in the service. He distinguished himself at Tripoli under Commodore Preble.

At *Catskill, N. Y.*, THOMAS COLE, aged 43. A highly gifted landscape painter. He was born in England, and came to this country very early in life. He was twice abroad, and painted many pictures of English and Italian scenery.

Mr. Cole's great merits as an artist are universally acknowledged. When he first appeared before the public as a landscape painter, the originality and force of his delineations took everybody by surprise. It was then for the first time, that the wild magnificence of our scenery, with its infinity of objects, its splendor of colors, its peculiar atmosphere, had been represented on canvas.

In *England*, DR. HOWLEY, the Archbishop of Canterbury. His personal estate was estimated at 120,000*l.* sterling.

MARCH, 1848.

At *Lyons, N. Y.*, HON. AMBROSE SPENCER, aged 83, formerly Chief Justice of the State of New York, one of the most eminent jurists in this country. One of his sons, Capt. Spencer, was killed in battle on the Niagara frontier during the war with Great Britain. Another son is the Hon. John C. Spencer, distinguished for his great legal talents, and lately Secretary of War and of the Treasury. Judge Spencer was a native of Connecticut, and after his marriage, made Hudson, N. Y., his residence.

In 1786, he was appointed Clerk of that city; and in 1793, he was elected a Member of the Assembly of New York, from Columbia

county. In 1795, he was elected to the Senate for three years; and in 1798, he was re-elected for four years. In 1796, he was appointed Assistant Attorney-General for the counties of Columbia and Rensselaer. In February, 1802, he was appointed Attorney-General of the State; and in 1804, he received the appointment of a Justice of the Supreme Court, of which he was made Chief Justice in 1819. For nearly twenty years he was associated on the bench of the Supreme Court of the State, and in the Court of Errors, with Kent, Thompson, Platt, Woodworth, and Van Ness.

Having nearly arrived at the period limited by the then constitution for judicial service, Judge Spencer retired from the bench in January, 1823.

After retiring from the bench, he continued to practice at the bar; but for many years he had resided on a farm at Lyons, in New York, where he died, full of years and honors.

At *Dorchester, Mass.*, HON. HENRY WHEATON, for many years Minister of the United States to the Courts of Europe.

Henry Wheaton was born at Providence, Rhode Island, on the 27th November, 1785, and graduated at Brown University in 1802. In 1815, Mr. Wheaton published a Digest of the Laws of Maritime Captures and Prizes. In 1816, he was appointed reporter of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1823, he published his life of William Pinckney. In 1825, he was a member of a committee for revising the Statutes of the State. In 1827, Mr. Adams appointed him Charge to Copenhagen, where he remained until 1834, when he was transferred to Berlin, as resident minister. In 1846, he was recalled by President Polk. While abroad, he published his *History of the Northerner*, and his *Elements of International Law*. He returned home last year—was received with honors by his countrymen, and died in *Dorchester, Mass.*, near Boston, March 11, 1848.

In *New York*, JOHN JACOB ASTOR, at the age of 85, one of the richest men in the world. His estate is estimated at 20 millions. He came to this country in very early life, 1783, with a few flutes and some other articles of merchandize—his sole property. He was born in Waldrop, in the Duchy of Baden, Germany, in 1764. He first went from Germany to London, to visit his brother there who was a flute maker, thence he came to this country in the ship *Caroline*, commanded by Captain John Angus, the father of the late Captain Angus of the United States Navy. He invested all the funds he could procure in the fur trade, and by his assiduity and energy, in a few years obtained the means for extensive enterprises. He formed the American Fur Company, and established the settlement of Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia river. He made

large purchases of real estate at an early day, the increased value of which swelled his wealth to an enormous amount. He left two sons—one, an imbecile from his birth; and the other, Wm. B. Astor, Esq., who receives the largest share of his property. To his daughters and their children also descend large possessions. By his will he bequeathed \$400,000 for a public library, in the city of New York. \$50,000 to the poor of Waldrop, and \$30,000 or \$40,000 to benevolent institutions.

In *Florida*, HON. JOHN M. HOLLY, a member of Congress from New York.

APRIL, 1848.

At *Washington*, HON. JAS. A. BLACK, of South Carolina, representative in Congress.

At *Bergamo*, Italy, DONIZETTI, the popular composer. His operas have had an unprecedented popularity.

At *Washington*, D. C., HON. CHESTER ASHLEY, Senator of the U. S. from Arkansas.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS.

By a reference to our prospectus, printed on the cover, it will be seen that it is a part of the plan of the work to give the *summary of Congressional proceedings, and the synopsis of debates* at the close of each session. These may, therefore, be expected in the next number. We ask indulgence for the delay of this number, beyond the first of the month, and for all other deficiencies incident to a new publication.

THE AMERICAN
QUARTERLY REGISTER
AND MAGAZINE.

NO. II.

SEPTEMBER, 1848.

HISTORICAL REGISTER.

THE beginning of the present year found the United States in a somewhat singular position. They had been nearly two years at war with Mexico, and after a series of victories and achievements which exceeded the expectations of the most sanguine and self-confident of our citizens, her armies had been routed and destroyed; all her principal cities occupied by our troops; and the whole country laid under contribution; without exhibiting any symptoms of preparing for active resistance. Yet, with such strong inducements on our part to continue the war, according to the ordinary motives of human action, and so many on the part of the Mexicans to wish for peace, it seemed as if we were far more desirous of it than they, on any terms at all suited to the relative circumstances of the parties. We had offered to put an end to a war that even threatened their independence, on their ceding a territory which contributed little to their number, revenue, or strength, and for which we were willing to release them from a debt of several millions, and to pay fifteen more into their exhausted treasury; yet these terms, so far beyond what, in their present humbled state, they had a right to expect, they had hitherto rejected, and had given, as yet, no evidence of a change of purpose.

Whence arose this anomaly? On the part of the Mexicans it is to be attributed chiefly to the national pride felt by the mass of the people, which, by a cession of territory ostensibly so great, revolted against thus openly acknowledging themselves vanquished, and to the fact that, in the struggles for ascendancy among their several

political factions, every one opposed a pacification so ignominious as most likely to recommend them to popular favor. Besides, on the great body of the Mexican people the war had as yet pressed lightly, as the American army paid for all provisions it consumed, and thus to many our large expenditure was a source of gain.

On the other hand, the United States had strong motives for bringing the war to a close. With a large part of the nation it had always been disliked, as involving unknown hazards to the distribution of political power, and to particular interests; and though the brilliant successes of the armies under Generals Taylor and Scott had silenced all objection in the pride of victory, yet these causes of national exultation, relieved by no reverse, had gradually lost much of their original interest. They had become cheaper by their frequency, and the glory of success in the field against Mexicans began to be less highly estimated both at home and abroad, notwithstanding the fact that the losses exhibited by the returns of our killed and wounded, showed that they were, both as to bravery and military skill, a far more formidable enemy than many affected to consider them. The war, too, if continued, would be likely to cause a great drain of specie, of which we no longer had an influx from abroad, and thus subject us to the evils of either a deficient or depreciated currency. Many also saw, with lively apprehensions, a growing disposition to incorporate into the Union the Mexican people, differing from us in language, religion and habits, and so little qualified for discharging the political functions of a free people.

In this state of things, the people and the national legislature were perplexed and divided about the policy it became them to pursue. There were not a few of our citizens who, in their anxiety to put an end to the war, would have been willing to effect their purpose by giving up all claims against Mexico for a cession of territory; but such was not the sentiment of a decided majority; who insisted on making the Rio Grande the boundary between the two countries, according to the claims of Texas, and of the whole or part of California; and the question was, what course was most likely to bring Mexico to accede to these terms?

Some were in favor of withdrawing our troops from the interior of Mexico to a line which would secure to us sufficient territory for indemnity, and of defending that line until the Mexicans, harassed by an enemy on their frontier, and actually made to feel thus the evils of the dismemberment they dreaded, would be induced to sue for peace. But others, including the administration, were disposed to carry on the war with redoubled vigor, by which the same result would be more certainly and quickly attained.

With a view to the second alternative of a more vigorous prosecution of hostilities, the administration had asked for ten additional

regiments; and the discussion of the expediency of this increase, which occupied Congress during the months of January and February, afforded to both parties an opportunity of presenting their several views, not only of the best mode of carrying on the war, but also their opinions as to its origin. Some referring it to the United States, and others to Mexico; and others, again, insisting that the responsibility must be equally shared by Congress with the President.

On the 4th of January, a resolution was introduced into the House of Representatives, by Mr. Goggin of Virginia, which requested the President to communicate the instructions that had been given to any officers of the army or navy concerning the return of Santa Anna, or other Mexican to the Republic of Mexico; as also the instructions to Mr. Slidell, as Minister from the United States to Mexico. A similar request, as to the return of Paredes to Mexico, was added by way of amendment. The resolution passed by a vote of 145 to 15.

On the 13th of January, the President, in an answer to this resolution to the House, communicated reports from the Secretary of State and Secretary of War, which, with the accompanying documents, he said, contained all the information in the possession of the Executive it was "deemed compatible with the public interests to communicate." Some further particulars, respecting the return of Santa Anna, with whom, he said, there had been no communication or understanding on the subject, were subjoined.

General Paredes, he stated, had evaded the vigilance of our sea and land forces, and landing at Vera Cruz, had made his way into Mexico.

As to the instructions to Mr. Slidell, the President, believing that the communication called for might injuriously affect negotiations not yet terminated, deems it "his right and his duty to decline a compliance with the request of the House of Representatives." He refers to the case in March 1796, in which General Washington refused a similar application, and although that request by the House was qualified with an exception as to such papers "as any existing negotiations might render improper to be disclosed," and the request to himself had no such qualification, yet he considered that the reasons alleged by President Washington for his refusal fully warranted his own.

This message gave rise to a spirited debate, in which, in justification of the President, examples of similar refusals by Presidents Monroe and Jackson were cited. There was, however, no vote on the question, nor any subsequent action of the House, from which it may be inferred that the President's reasons were deemed satisfactory to a majority.

In the midst of the deliberations of Congress on the policy of

sending additional forces to the 40,000 or 45,000 men already there, and whether such addition should consist of regulars or volunteers, it was rumored that Mr. Trist, whose mission was supposed to be at an end, had renewed negotiations with the Mexican authorities, and had actually concluded a treaty. The public mind remained some two or three weeks in a state of anxious suspense on the subject, until the 23d of February, when the treaty, which had been received a few days before, was submitted by the President to the Senate.

While the Senate were in secret session on this treaty, its terms, by some irregular procedure, which subsequent investigation has not satisfactorily explained, were communicated to the *New York Herald*, a journal of wide circulation, and thus made known to the whole people. Its terms were communicated to our readers in our first number, and it will now be found at length amongst our official documents.

After a deliberation of more than a fortnight, which was protracted by the illness and death of Ex-President Adams, and the honors paid to his memory, the Treaty received the sanction of the Senate by a vote of 38 to 15 on the 11th of March, with one or two amendments, however, of little comparative importance. Thus amended, it was sent back to Mexico for the ratification of the Mexican Congress. The commissioners appointed for that purpose were Hon. Ambrose H. Sevier and Nathan Clifford. The minority who voted against the treaty were composed of members of both parties.

Not long after this ratification by the Senate, the public mind was electrified by the news of a new revolution in France, by which, in the course of three or four days, Louis Philippe had been forced to abdicate, and a temporary government had assumed the republican form.

The change had the approbation and good wishes of a very large majority of the American people of all parties; yet here and there less sanguine individuals were found, who, looking at the adverse chances against the permanent establishment of republicanism in France, feared that France, after again experiencing the horrors of anarchy, might, in despair of a political system that combined civil freedom with law and order, again endeavor to secure the latter under the dynasty of some branch of the Bourbons, or the military rule of a Bonaparte. But the mass of the people, influenced by their wishes, regarded the republic as permanently established, and held public meetings in all the principal cities to express their admiration and delight at the change of government in France, and to offer their congratulations to the new republic.

The administration, and both Houses of Congress, responded to these sentiments of the people. On the 3d of April, the President

communicated to Congress the dispatches received from Mr. Rush, the American Minister at Paris, giving a detailed account of the events of the recent revolution, which he described as “an interesting and sublime spectacle.” He gave his “unqualified approbation to the prompt recognition of the new government by Mr. Rush;” and while he adverted to our principles of not interfering in the domestic affairs of other countries, he refers to our former obligations to France; avows our gratitude and our sympathy, and expresses “our ardent and sincere congratulations to the patriotic people of France.”

After some disagreement about the form of the resolutions, the following, as the joint expression of both Houses, obtained the unanimous vote of the Senate.

“*Resolved*, That, in the name and behalf of the American people, the congratulations of Congress are hereby tendered to the people of France, upon the success of their recent efforts to consolidate the principles of liberty in a republican form of government.

“*And be it further resolved*, That the President of the United States be, and he is hereby, requested to transmit this resolution to the American Minister at Paris, with instructions to present it to the French government.”

The joint resolution also obtained an unanimous vote in the Senate, with the exception of two dissentients.

The President, on the 29th April, transmitted to the two Houses of Congress certain communications received from M. Justo Sierra, the Commissioner of Yucatan, and also from the Governor of that State, representing the extreme state of suffering to which their country has been reduced, by an insurrection of its Indian inhabitants, and soliciting the assistance of the United States.

From these documents, it appeared that the Indians, superior to the whites in numbers, were waging against them a war of extermination; that the whites, “panic stricken and destitute of arms,” were flying towards the coast, and death, or exile from their country, seemed to be the only alternatives presented to them if they could not receive foreign aid. That aid they had implored from the Spanish and British governments, as well as the United States, and had offered, in consideration of it, the sovereignty of their peninsula.

The President, while he declines to recommend the acquisition of Yucatan to the United States, earnestly protests against its cession to Spain or Great Britain, and refers to the language of President Monroe, in December 1823, when he declares, “That we should consider any attempt on the part of European powers to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere, as dangerous to our peace and safety; and that the American continents, by the free and inde-

pendent condition which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." He enforces this precautionary policy with great earnestness, and says, that from the situation of Yucatan on the Gulf of Mexico, and its vicinity to Florida, Cuba, and New Orleans, it would, in the character of an European colony, particularly endanger our peace and security. He suggests that, if our aid was withheld, there is good reason to believe it would be obtained from some European power, which might thence assert a claim to the dominion of the country. He adverts to the peculiar relation in which we stand to Yucatan; that state, having nowhere declared her independence of Mexico, is still regarded by us as a part of the Mexican Republic, yet we have recognized her as neutral in the present war. If we had troops to spare, we might take military possession of it during the war, and thus afford protection to its inhabitants; but unprovided with such force, all that can be done at present is to employ a part of our naval forces in the Gulf to afford them relief.

In consequence of this message, a bill was introduced into the Senate by Mr. Hannegan, of Indiana, now chairman of the Committee for Foreign Affairs, to authorize the President to take military possession of Yucatan, with a view to the protection of its white inhabitants against the incursions of the Indians, which gave rise to an animated and protracted debate. It was resisted not only by several members of the opposition, but also by Mr. Calhoun, who spoke on the subject several times, and who denied that the celebrated declaration of Mr. Monroe, concerning European intervention in the affairs of this continent, had been rightly understood by President Polk. He gave a history of that declaration, having been at the time a member of Mr. Monroe's cabinet; and he stated, that the part of the declaration which respected European colonization, was, as he presumed, added to the rest by Mr. Adams, and had not been seen by Mr. Monroe, or the other members of the cabinet, before the communication was made. He referred to a different account of the origin of this declaration, which was said to have been made a short time before by Mr. Adams, who said it was wholly written by himself. Mr. Calhoun offered an explanation of this alleged discrepancy, by supposing Mr. Adams to be really the author of the part which related to colonization.

Indeed, the whole of Mr. Monroe's message seems to show that his main purpose was, as Mr. Calhoun states, to denounce and probably defeat the project, then believed to be entertained by the Allied Powers, to reinstate Spain in her dominions on this continent, and to convert them into separate monarchies.

It may be here remarked, as not a little curious, that this gratui-

tous manifesto of Mr. Monroe to the crowned heads of Europe, of the settled purpose of the United States, which had been then manifested by no known indication of public sentiment, and which, though it had been, the President had no authority to proclaim, not only escaped censure, but by the boldness and patriotism it indicated, obtained at home the general approbation both of the politicians and the people; and was received abroad with the credit and respect due to a national decree, solemnly made according to the laws and constitution.

While this bill for the temporary military occupation of Yucatan was under consideration in the Senate, on the 17th of May, the member who had introduced it, Mr. Hannegan, stated, that intelligence had been received that a treaty between the government of Yucatan and the Indians had been concluded; he therefore moved that the bill be informally passed over, and its further consideration was accordingly postponed.

It had been previously decided by the administration to send a small squadron to the Yucatan coast, and to aid the white inhabitants as far as they were able without landing their forces. Subsequently the Indians renewed their outrages on the whites with increased violence and brutality, but a change for the better has recently occurred. Timely succor to the wretched and flying inhabitants arrived in the shape of money and volunteers, and the Indians are not only held in check, but several towns have been taken from them.

In the month of May was published the official report by General Price of the battle of Santa Cruz de Rozales, from which it appeared that, at the time the treaty of peace was under discussion in the Senate, the war still raged in New Mexico. On the 1st of March, General Price entered Chihuahua, which, on his approach, was evacuated by the Mexican General Trias, who sent a flag of truce to General Price to inform him that official notice had been received of a treaty of peace having been signed by the commissioners of the two countries; but that officer felt bound under the circumstances to disregard this representation, and on being reinforced by the Missouri horse, under Colonel Lane, and by Love's battery, he advanced upon Santa Cruz and stormed the town. The engagement took place on the 16th March, and lasted from three P. M. to sundown, when the enemy surrendered. General Trias and forty-two of his principal officers were made prisoners of war; and eleven pieces of artillery, nine wall pieces, and 577 stand of arms fell into the hands of the victors. The American loss was very slight. Shortly after, General Manuel Armijo, late Governor of New Mexico, surrendered himself to General Price.

This being the year for the election of a President, the two great

parties of Democrats and Whigs, according to the usual mode of concentrating their strength, held conventions of deputies, informally chosen in every part of the Union, to consult on the candidates they should severally select.

The Democrats met on the 22d May, in Baltimore, and after a session of four days, three candidates were named—Lewis Cass, of Michigan, James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, and Levi Woodbury, of New Hampshire. Besides the nominees, votes were given for G. M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, Worth, of New York, and Wm. O. Butler, of Kentucky. On the fourth ballot, General Cass was selected as the candidate for the Presidency, by a vote of 179 out of 254; and General Wm. O. Butler, of Kentucky, who succeeded General Scott as commander-in-chief of the forces in Mexico, received on the second ballot 169 of 253 votes for the Vice-Presidency.

The session of this body was protracted by the circumstance that two sets of delegates presented themselves from the State of New York—each claiming to be the representatives of the Democratic party in that state, and each having been elected in a convention composed of members from every part of the state. This division, which every attempt to heal proved unavailing, arose from the Democrats of that state taking opposite sides on what is now familiarly designated as the Wilmot Proviso, from the name of the member from Pennsylvania who first proposed it; which proviso would make the exclusion of slavery the condition of all territories and states hereafter to be created or admitted into the union. The convention, declining to decide between the two delegations, agreed to admit them both, allowing them only the vote to which the state was entitled, but they both objecting to this arrangement, and declining to vote, the largest state in the Union in this selection of nominees was unrepresented. Subsequently the delegates from New York, representing what is termed the "Hunker party," sanctioned the nominations of Cass and Butler; but the other set of delegates, being highly exasperated, withdrew and called a convention of the "Barnburner or Free Soil Democracy," which assembled in Utica on the 22d of June; when Ex-President Martin Van Buren was nominated as a candidate for the Presidency, with General Dodge, of Wisconsin, for the Vice-Presidency. The latter gentleman promptly declined the honor, but Mr. Van Buren acceded to the wishes of the convention. In a letter addressed to his political friends, he argues, that an independent nomination is justified by the course of the Baltimore convention in rejecting the radical delegates, and by the published sentiments of the nominee of that convention on the question of slavery. Mr. Van Buren is decidedly opposed to the allowance of slavery in the territories, and

on this ground his friends hope to unite in his support the men of all parties who favor the free soil movement. They have accordingly procured for him a further nomination by the convention of the advocates of free soil, which assembled at Buffalo, consisting principally of delegates from New England, New York and Ohio, who, with great unanimity, nominated Mr. Van Buren for the Presidency, and Charles Francis Adams, of Boston, son of Ex-President Adams, for the Vice-Presidency.

The Whig convention assembled in Philadelphia on the 7th of June. The nominees for the Presidency were Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Winfield Scott, of New Jersey, John M'Lean, of Ohio, and John M. Clayton, of Delaware. On the third ballot General Taylor received 171 votes out of 280, and was declared the Whig candidate for the Presidency; and Millard Fillmore, of New York, on the second ballot received a majority of the votes as the candidate for the Vice-Presidency.

It was believed that a large majority of this convention would have given the preference to Mr. Clay over all the candidates, as being the most experienced statesman, and as having the strongest claims on the Whig party, but they preferred General Taylor, because he had, by his conduct in the late war, obtained favor with men of all parties, and because he was not exposed to that bitter and strenuous opposition which Mr. Clay, so long known as a party leader, was certain to encounter.

The quadrennial controversy is, therefore, now begun, and its agitations will continue to increase until November next, when after a few days of chagrin and disappointment on one side, and of joyous exultation on the other, the political tempest will leave no vestige of its existence.

On the 29th of May, the President transmitted to both Houses of Congress a memorial from "the Governor and Legislative Assembly of Oregon Territory," who constitute the temporary government the citizens have there created for themselves, asking the aid and protection of the general government against the attacks of the neighboring Indians. They represent that they are far inferior to the Indians in numbers, and are destitute of money and arms. The President states the population of Oregon to be above twelve thousand, and that it is about to receive a considerable increase. He recommends that a territorial government be there established, and an adequate volunteer force be raised for its defence, and suggests that the measures taken must be speedily adopted, that the Rocky Mountains may be crossed before the cold season makes them impassable.

The attention of Congress was thus urgently called to a bill for the establishment of a territorial government in Oregon, which had been for some time before Congress, but had, it would seem, by

common consent, been postponed, because it was foreseen that it would involve the same question of slavery as the Wilmot Proviso; and, it was also known, the people of all the free states wished to interdict slavery in the territory, while those of the slaveholding states insisted that such an interdict, by prohibiting them from carrying their property thither, would deprive them of their just share of those territories.

The discussion of this bill called forth, as had been expected, the irritating and interminable subject of slavery.

The existence of domestic slavery in one-half of the states of this Union, and the strong repugnance to it in the other states, besides being a never-failing theme of controversy—often of bitter and angry controversy among the citizens at large—mingles more or less in most questions of public policy, and is sometimes decisive of them. In the presidential elections; in the formation of new states; in the legislation for territories; in the right of petition, it constitutes a prominent topic.

While our citizens of each of these great divisions are so closely bound together by a community of feeling on this subject, in creating new states, both of them endeavor to strengthen themselves by adding to the number of free or slaveholding states, to which they respectively belong; and such have ever been their policy and course since the adoption of the Constitution in 1789. At that time, six free balanced six slaveholding states, and New Jersey, which contained slaves, but less than one-eighteenth of her population, might be regarded as a neutral on this subject. Kentucky being soon after added to the list of slaveholding states, Vermont was admitted as a free state, and the political power, dependent on the number of states, continued ever after to be equally shared between the two divisions, with but small temporary exceptions.

Thus, at the apportionment of 1800, there were eight slaveholding states, with the accession of Tennessee; and seven free states, exclusive of New Jersey.

At the apportionment of 1810, there were nine free states, exclusive of New Jersey, by the accession of Ohio; and nine slaveholding states, by the accession of Louisiana.

At the apportionment of 1820, there were twelve free states, including New Jersey, with the accession of Indiana and Illinois; and there were twelve slaveholding states, by the accession of Mississippi, Alabama, and Missouri.

At the apportionment in 1830 and 1840, the free states were thirteen by the accession of Michigan; and the slaveholding states had an equal number by the accession of Arkansas.

At the next apportionment after 1850, each division will have

fifteen states, Texas and Florida having, since 1840, been added to the slaveholding states, and Iowa and Wisconsin to the free states.

But this equilibrium cannot be permanently maintained. Occasionally a slaveholding state passes into the other division; in which case it takes two other states of that class to balance it. Thus, in no long time, Delaware first, and then Maryland, will become free states; when, to counterbalance them, four slaveholding states will be required. Missouri and Kentucky will probably soon after take the same course, which accession must be balanced by four other slaveholding states; and the same process, at a quicker or slower rate, must continue.

Were this a mere question of political power, it might, as the presidential election, be more easily managed, or at least more safely encountered by the American people, familiarized as they are to the transition from the most violent political contests to a quiet and loyal submission to the will of the majority, when once that will is ascertained; but, unfortunately, there mingles with this question, in the free states, religious and moral feelings, which, making opposition to slavery a matter of conscience, will hear of no compromise. The light in which the holders of slaves are viewed by this class, strengthened as it is, too, by those who cherish anti-slavery prejudices to gain local or political influence, naturally produces reaction on the slaveholders, who regard their opponents either as fanatical, if honest, or unprincipled, and whose pride and resentment are inflamed by a sense of injustice, and by apprehensions that their rights of property will be yet further invaded, and perhaps their peace and safety endangered. Without doubt, the sober-minded portion of the people in the free states, and those who regard the Federal Union as securing to its citizens all that they most dearly prize—constituting the great mass of those states—however unanimous and decided they may be that slavery is both a moral and political evil, are content to leave those evils with those who were born to them and choose to bear them, and to whom they acknowledge the exclusive right of devising and applying the remedy belongs.

This state of things unquestionably has its mischiefs. It breaks in upon our social harmony, and it occasionally disturbs the proper action of our political machinery; but, in spite of the sinister predictions of the timid here, and of the unfriendly abroad, it seems incapable of worse consequences than it has hitherto produced, unless the people of this country grossly degenerate from the good sense and political equanimity which have heretofore characterized them.

It may be farther remarked, that this source of civil dissension, which chances, from the influence of climate both on man and the products of the soil, to divide our citizens geographically, is tempered

and weakened by the great party questions that are ever agitating the country, inasmuch as they often range on the same side those whom the slavery question might otherwise separate. They may thus bind together, by the ties of amity and fellow-feeling, the citizen of Massachusetts or Ohio with the slaveholder of Virginia or Alabama. Indeed, every question of sufficient moment to interest large masses of the people, tends, by strengthening the bonds of sympathy and congeniality between citizens of the North and South, to weaken the disuniting tendency of the slave question. It does good, both by separating those whom that local question might unite, and by uniting those whom that question might separate; an illustration of which we have in the fact that every nominee for the presidency brought forward by the late Democratic Convention, at Baltimore, had professed himself opposed to the Wilmot proviso.

Whilst the Oregon bill was under discussion in the Senate, the President, on the 6th of July, transmitted to Congress copies of the Mexican treaty, the ratification of which had been duly exchanged at Queretaro, in Mexico, on the 30th of May. After congratulating Congress and the country on the termination of the war, and its glorious results, he suggests the farther duties which the treaty now imposes on the national legislature. These are—

To provide for the payment of twelve of the fifteen millions of dollars stipulated to be paid, in four annual instalments to Mexico, three millions having already been paid:

To provide for the appointment of a commissioner and surveyor to designate the boundary line between the United States and Mexico; and also for the appointment of a board of commissioners to decide upon the claims of American citizens against the Mexican Government, which claims the United States have now assumed to pay.

After adverting to the great value of California to the United States, the area of which he seems to estimate at upwards of 600,000 square miles, he earnestly recommends the establishment of territorial governments both in California and in New Mexico, as they would otherwise be without government. Since foreign commerce is now extensively carried on in the ports of California, they will also require to be regulated by law.

In organizing government over these territories, he “invokes a spirit of concession, conciliation and compromise,” as indispensable to the preservation of the harmony and union of the states, and refers to the warning voice of Washington to guard against geographical dissensions.

To induce the early settlement of the remote possessions lately acquired, he recommends liberal grants of the public lands to settlers.

He thinks that the army, as it was before the war with Mexico, will be sufficient for a time of peace, if the number of the rank and file be filled up to the maximum authorized during the war.

Provision should be made for the extinguishment of the public debt, which has been increased from \$17,788,000 to \$65,778,000. To this must be added the \$12,000,000 to be paid to Mexico, and also the claims of our citizens against the Mexican government, which, liquidated and unliquidated, are limited by the treaty to \$3,250,000; thus making the whole public debt amount to about \$81,000,000. That part which consists of claims of our citizens thus assumed, he thinks, may be paid out of the existing revenue, without any creation of stock for that purpose.

He recommends that authority be given to the executive to anticipate the reimbursement of such part of the debt as may not be now redeemable, by purchasing it at par, or at the premium it may command in the market, a correspondent premium having been already received by the government. He thinks that the revenue derived from the present tariff and the sale of the public lands will be sufficient to allow several millions to be annually appropriated to the discharge of the debt—a measure which is recommended by so many considerations of policy.

Of all the questions which have arisen on the construction of the federal constitution, there has been no one (that of the power of Congress to lay protective duties excepted) which has excited so much interest, or has been so warmly and frequently controverted, as the power of appropriating money to improve the facilities of transportation, by means of roads, canals, the removal of obstructions from rivers, and the like aids to the internal commerce and navigation of the states.

This power has, indeed, been frequently exercised by Congress in the construction of roads—in aiding to make canals—in improving harbors on the lakes, and the navigation of large rivers; yet it has also been denied by both Houses of Congress, and presidents have repeatedly exercised their constitutional negative on laws passed for such purposes.

Notwithstanding these occasional checks, such appropriations have too important a bearing on local and individual interests to be lightly abandoned; and, accordingly, there has scarcely ever been a Congress to which applications for grants of money for some of these internal improvements have not been made.

At the close of the preceding session, a bill having passed both Houses for many improvements of this character, especially on the western waters, and the President being disposed to negative it, but not having had time to assign the reasons for his veto, he took an early occasion at the present session (Dec. 15) to send back the bill,

with his reasons for refusing to assent to it. He justified his construction of the constitution by arguments drawn from that instrument itself, and by the authorities of Presidents Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Jackson. This message was referred by the House to the Committee on Commerce.

On the 5th of July, the House of Representatives having taken up a report of the Committee on Commerce relative to this subject, proceeded to consider the resolutions it had submitted: they were as follows:—

1. *Resolved*, That the Constitution of the United States vest in Congress the power to appropriate money to open and improve harbors, and remove obstructions from navigable rivers, in all cases where such improvements are necessary to the protection and facility of commerce with foreign nations, or the commerce among the states.

2. *Resolved*, That the interests of our national commerce, the common defence and general welfare of the United States, require a judicious exercise of the foregoing powers.

3. *Resolved*, That the reasons assigned by the President, in his veto message of December 15, 1847, for his refusal to approve and sign a bill passed March 3, 1847, making appropriations for the improvement of certain harbors and rivers, are deemed insufficient and unsatisfactory.

4. *Resolved*, That it would be inexpedient, and contrary to the principles of the constitution, to give the general consent of Congress, in advance of legislation by the states, to the imposition of tonnage duties by the several states, as a means of improving the ports and harbors at which such duties may be levied.

5. *Resolved*, That the report of the Committee of Commerce, on the memorial of the Chicago Convention, respecting the harbor and river improvements, the President's Message of December 15, 1847, on the said subject, and the bill referred to said committee in relation to tonnage duties, with the minority report on the same subject, be printed, and that the committee on printing be directed to inquire into the expediency of printing extra copies of said report.

The first of the preceding resolutions passed the House on the 5th of July, by a vote of 128 to 59; and on the 12th, the second resolution passed by a vote of 112 to 53; the third by a vote of 91 to 71; the fourth by a vote of 109 to 59; and the last without a division.

Recent accounts from Oregon contain the appalling account of the murder, by the Cayuse Indians, of Dr. Whitman, the missionary at Waiilatpuc, with his wife and twelve other persons—the particulars we have given in another place. The people of the territory mustered a military force to resist and punish the aggressors, and in

February last defeated the Cayuses with considerable loss, in a battle which lasted three hours. An attempt to adjust the difficulties between the Indians and whites was subsequently made, but failed, and on the 10th of March, the Oregon regiment, under Col. Gillian, defeated the Indians in another battle—of the Indians, fifty were killed, the whites lost ten men. The colonel of the regiment was accidentally killed after the battle. Provisions and ammunition were scarce, and reinforcements from the States were anxiously expected.

After various propositions and suggestions in the discussion on the Oregon Territory bill, in the Senate, Mr. Clayton, of Delaware, on the 12th of July, moved that the bill and amendments be referred to a select committee of eight, to be balloted for, four from the North and four from the South. A modification was suggested and adopted, that the Committee on Territories be discharged from the further consideration of so much of the President's Message as relates to New Mexico, California and Oregon, and that the same be referred to the select committee of eight, and the question on this motion was decided in the affirmative, by a vote of 31 to 14. A committee was accordingly appointed, consisting of John M. Clayton, of Delaware, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, David R. Atchison, of Missouri, Jesse D. Bright, of Indiana, John R. Clarke, of Rhode Island, Samuel S. Phelps, of Vermont, Daniel S. Dickinson, of New York, and Jos. R. Underwood, of Kentucky—four from each great political party. On the 18th of July, Mr. Clayton, the chairman of this committee, reported a bill for the organization of territorial governments in Oregon, California and New Mexico, consisting of 37 sections. That part of it which related to Oregon continued in force the existing territorial laws until the new government should have time to act—provided for a Legislature of two Houses, whose power of legislation should extend “to all rightful subjects of legislation, consistent with the Constitution of the United States,” and of course to admitting or excluding slavery—but all laws passed to be subject to the approval of Congress.

The provisions in the bill for the territorial governments of New Mexico and California, constituted a legislative council, similar to the former territorial government of Michigan, composed of the governors and judges, and authorized to pass laws subject to the revision of Congress—but restrained from passing any laws on the subject of slavery or the freedom of religion, or impairing the right of the United States to the unoccupied land. And if any question on the subject of slavery should arise, it was to be left to the decision of the judiciary of the United States. Mr. Clayton prefaced the introduction of the bill by remarking that the difficulties in the way of the committee were very great. The territories to be organ-

ized embraced an area of 1,044,492 square miles, as large as two-thirds of Europe, and the difficulties of organization were increased by the nature and character of the population now existing there, as well as that hereafter to be introduced by the extension of the constitution and laws of the United States, over so vast a country. He spoke in very high terms of the conciliatory spirit evinced by the members of the committee, but that after various propositions, all compromise of the great question of slavery seemed impossible, until it was determined to leave for the present the settlement of it to the laws of population or the adaptation of the climate, soil, and all circumstances to the various kinds of labor. "Congress would thus avoid," said Mr. Clayton, "the decision of this distracting question, leaving it to be settled by the silent operation of the constitution itself; and that in case Congress should refuse to touch the subject, the country would be slaveholding only where by the laws of nature, slave-labor was effective, and free-labor could not maintain itself. On the other hand, in case Congress should hereafter choose to adopt the compromise line of $36^{\circ} 30'$ —north of which, I suppose, it is not expected that slave-labor can be introduced—or any other rule of settlement, it will be free to act as to its wisdom and patriotism shall seem fit."

On this bill of compromise, as it was called, a most exciting debate ensued, which was maintained for several days by some of the ablest debaters in the Senate. Contrary to usage in an American Congress, the session of Wednesday, the 26th of July, was continued during the whole night, for twenty-one hours, up to Thursday at 8 A. M., when the bill was passed by a vote of 33 ayes, to 22 nays. Of the ayes, 8 were from free States, and 26 affirmative votes were cast by Democratic members.

On Friday, the 28th of July, the bill came up in the House of Representatives, and at once received the *coup de grace*. Mr. Stephens, of Georgia, moved to lay it on the table, giving as his reasons, that although the bill was connected with a subject of the deepest interest, he could not believe that its passage would secure peace and quiet to the country; on the contrary, it proposed merely a postponement, not a settlement of this vexed question. He did not believe that it would be settled during the present session. The motion to lay on the table was carried by a vote of 112 to 97, and the motion to reconsider was lost by a vote of 114 to 96, which was regarded as a final disposition of the bill for the session.

After this summary disposition of the compromise bill, the House of Representatives proceeded to the consideration of the bill to provide a territorial government for Oregon, which had been reported by the committee on territories. The section which conferred the veto power on the governor of the territory was stricken out, and on

the question to retain the provision excluding slavery from the territory, the vote was in favor of the provision, ayes 114, nays 88. On the 1st of August, the bill was passed by a vote of 129 to 71, and sent to the Senate, where it was referred to the Committee on Territories.

On the 10th of August, this bill came up for consideration in the Senate, and after a very animated debate, was passed, with two amendments, by a vote of 33 to 21. One of the amendments inserted the veto power, and the other extended the Missouri Compromise to the Pacific Ocean. Mr. Webster, in a forcible manner, advocated the bill as it came from the House of Representatives, and took his stand with those who are conscientiously opposed to the allowance of slavery in the territories. Mr. Calhoun made a strong speech on the other side—entered into the history of abolitionism, and came to the conclusion that the slavery question is to be decided out of Congress.

The next day the bill again came up in the House of Representatives, and the Senate's amendments were very summarily disposed of. The first, granting the veto power, was negatived by a vote of 92 to 106; and the extension of the Missouri Compromise, involving the main question between the Senate and the House, was negatived by a vote of 85 to 121. The bill, on coming again before the Senate with the amendments stricken out, caused a very stormy debate. By the timely exertions of the Senators from Missouri and Texas, it was finally passed without the obnoxious provisions.

Peace found the United States blessed with unwonted abundance, and with no other embarrassment than what arises from the election of their chief magistrate for the next four years, and from the low prices caused by that very superabundance of their agricultural products. This is an inconvenience we must expect to encounter in plentiful years, so long as our population continues to increase so much more rapidly than that of our customers. In this way the products of our lands are so vast in amount and of such steady increase, that we seem able to glut all accessible foreign markets; at least we produce more than we can sell at prices that will at once repay to labor and capital the liberal remuneration they here require, and defray the cost of distant transportation. At this time there is not one of our great staples which is not at a price below this point, except wheat, and from the unprecedented yield of the present harvest, that must soon sink to the level of the rest. Our shipping is equally redundant, and while so much of it is now unemployed, ship building is for a time suspended. The low price of our exports must lessen the amount of our imports, together with the capacity of the people to consume them.

Yet the evil is not altogether uncompensated. The nation generally is benefited by this general abundance and unwonted cheapness. The buyers of most of those articles are far more numerous than the sellers; and that reduction of price which is injurious to some is advantageous to many. The cheapness of agricultural products must lower the money price of labor, which must so far benefit the manufacturer, but which may not proportionally injure the operative, as he may purchase as much provisions with his reduced wages as he could have done when they were higher. The lower the prices, too, the more liberal the consumption, until the former proportion between the supply and demand is restored, or is approached; and the sphere of our foreign markets is enlarged. At the present prices of sugar, the consumption must be immensely increased. The low price of cotton must, in like manner, extend the manufacture of it here and elsewhere, and multiply the uses to which it is put. At present it may be a better remittance to China than silver dollars. Before flour and other breadstuffs fall much below their present price, they will bear the expense of a more distant transportation, and find markets from which they are now excluded.

Most of our manufacturers, though their profits have been greatly diminished by the tariff of 1846, continue to fight their way against their formidable competitors in Europe; and those that can stand the first brunt of the contest will finally prevail. The cost of production is continually diminishing by improved machinery and skill; by the increase of manufacturing labor; and by the reduced price of the raw material. The day is not distant when every species of handicraft, in ordinary use, and not requiring unusual skill, will be produced as cheaply as they can be made in any part of Europe and brought here.

Nothing seems likely to check this rapid advancement of American manufactures; unless, indeed, the political changes that are now agitating Europe shall light up a general war in that hemisphere, when our capital and enterprise may again be engrossed by the more profitable pursuits of neutral commerce, not then, as formerly, harassed by lawless French Decrees and English Orders in Council; or when, perhaps, our people, having in two or three brief experiments, proved apt scholars in the game of war, may be disposed to take a hand at it themselves, and thus exchange the excitement of sudden gain for the intoxication of glory!

FRANCE.

Let us now turn our attention to the great drama which the people of France have been enacting since the 22d of February last.

On the very day that Louis Philippe abdicated the throne, and

fled from Paris, a Provisional Government was appointed by the voices of a promiscuous multitude, acting apparently under the impulse of the moment; but, doubtless, this important measure had been previously arranged by one of those self-appointed jontos which boldly step forward as the interpreters and the heralds of public sentiment, and who, seizing the deserted helm, appear to guide the ship of state when they are only keeping her steady before the popular tempest.

The persons thus appointed were, first, Dupont de l'Eure, Lamartine, Arago, Crémieux, Ledru Rollin, Garnier Pagès, Marie; to whom were soon afterwards added, Armand Marrast, Louis Blanc, Flocon, and Albert; all of whom except, perhaps, Albert, an operative, had, in the character of either legislators or journalists, made themselves known for their talents, and had acquired popular favor for their republicanism.

The different departments of executive authority were soon distributed among the eleven members of the Provisional Government, and such others as they appointed.

Lamartine, who soon appeared to be the favorite of the day, and to take the lead among his associates, was the Minister for Foreign Affairs; and in that character, received and answered the addresses of foreign ministers and deputations from abroad, which the enthusiasts and malcontents were not slow to send from every part of Europe.

Mr. Rush, the minister from the United States, together with the minister from Great Britain, was the first to recognize the revolution, and their example was followed by several less conspicuous members of the diplomatic body; though the ministers of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, kept aloof until they received the instructions of their respective governments.

The numerous and diversified duties which the late government had discharged in collecting and disbursing its revenue; in directing the affairs of its army and navy; in the administration of justice; in its interior regulations; in the management of its colonies, its diplomatic relations, its post-office, &c.;—passing at once into new hands, would have severely tasked the greatest talents joined to the most indefatigable labors; but how much more so the inexperienced men who composed the present ministry!

The Provisional Government had taken an early opportunity, in their communications with the representatives of foreign nations, to avow their pacific policy, and to disclaim all intention of interposing between other governments and their disaffected subjects; and in answer to the addresses from the deputies of self-appointed associations in other countries, the same language was substantially

held. To an address from the people of Ireland, Lamartine frankly declared to them that the French people were desirous of preserving their present friendly relations with the British Government; and while they cordially sympathized with the political sufferings and wrongs of the Irish, they could not interfere in their behalf.

In his answer to an address from Italy, his language was less explicit; and if aid was not promised them in their struggle with Austria, neither was it refused. He told them that the wants of the European people were peace and liberty; and the want of the age was "an European Washington."

To the address of the Poles he replied, that the French nation deeply sympathized with them, and would repay what it owed to Poland, but the hour and the time must be left to France. Her present policy was peace.

As some sources of revenue had been diminished by the revolution, and some disbursements had increased, the Provisional Government soon began to experience financial difficulties, to meet which it contracted loans with the Bank of France; and the better to enable the bank to advance the large sums required, it gave its sanction to the suspension of cash payments; and, moreover, authorized the bank to issue notes as low as fifty and twenty-five francs. They had previously none under 500 francs.

The party in favor of the organization of labor, generally termed "Socialists," or "Communists," seeming to have been gaining ground, and to have the support of many of the clubs of Paris, on Sunday, the 16th of April, determined to try their strength by getting up an *émeute*, on the pretext of some alleged misconduct of one of the government commissaries, when they were assailed by the National Guards and dispersed. This was considered to be a decided triumph for the moderates and the Provisional Government.

With every disposition on the part of the government to humor the claims of the multitude, and on that of the people, hoping every thing from the change, to submit to temporary inconvenience, there was necessarily much discontent, for the revolution had not, as yet, put bread into the mouth of the *prolétaire*, nor lessened any of his miseries: it had only made it easier for him to express his impatience of them. These discontents, which scheming politicians and secret factions were ever ready to foment, frequently manifested themselves, and required the utmost vigilance on the part of the Provisional Government, backed by the National Guard, which was composed of the citizens indiscriminately, to put it down. Yet in no long time it was found expedient to provide the means of subsistence for the indigent class, which in Paris is powerful from its numbers as well

as desperation, and whose clamors were the louder in consequence of a theory that had been for some time industriously propagated by Louis Blanc, and which Ledru Rollin was supposed to favor.

There had thus arisen a party who professed to be the especial patrons of the laboring class, and proposed to defend that class from the abuses to which, in the existing state of society, they were exposed, by a system which they called "the organization of labor." They assumed that, by the effect of competition among the operatives, the rewards of labor always sunk to their minimum, which was as unjust to them as it was beneficial to the capitalists. That the legislature might and should protect them from this injustice; and the expedients they proposed for this end were to limit the number of hours a laborer should be required to work; to provide employment for those who could not otherwise obtain it, and to give to all thus employed adequate and equal compensation. To prevent the indolent from throwing their share of the labor upon their associates, a post in every workshop was to bear the inscription that there "every sluggard was a thief;" which apothegm they vainly expected to produce an effect that hunger and want often failed to produce; and which moral equation, perchance, might yet more lessen the horror of theft than increase the inclination to labor. Calculated as this principle of equal wages was to find favor with operatives of ordinary skill and diligence, who must always, as the term implies, constitute the greater number, it did not meet with strong popular support; but it soon appeared that the unsophisticated common sense of the people recognized the justice and policy of paying every one according to his individual talent, industry, and fidelity.

So much, however, was conceded to the friends of the operatives by the Provisional Government, that the hours of labor were reduced, and a workshop was provided where all persons in want of employment were to be furnished with it by the government;—a measure which, however warranted in the first moments of revolution, when many dependent on their daily labor for the support of their families are thrown out of employment, could never be safely adopted as a permanent system, or rather, which never could become one. Our penitentiaries, improved as they have been by experience, have taught us on a small scale, the very burdensome cost of such a system.

Of the several decrees by the Provisional Government, the following, selected from those passed during the first week after their appointment, may serve to show their principles and policy.

Capital punishment for political offences was abolished.

Prosecutions against the press to be withdrawn, and the prisoners confined for any political offence to be released. The liberty of the press guaranteed.

The stamp duty on periodicals taken away.

Articles pledged at the *Mont Piété* to be restored to the owners: the Minister of Finance to pay the amount due on them.

The palace of the Tuileries to be converted into a workshop for disabled workmen.

The abolition of titles of nobility.

Oaths of office to be discontinued.

Discount banks to be established. Ten days further time granted to pay bills throughout France. Payment of interest due on the public stock to be made some days in advance.

Every Frenchman of twenty-one years of age, to be an elector of representatives. All of twenty-five to be eligible. The number of representatives to be 900, including those of the colonies, and to receive 25 francs per diem. The vote to be by ballot.

All citizens to be armed and clothed as National Guards. Those not able to provide clothing to be furnished at the public expense.

The royal residences to be sold, and the proceeds to be applied to the relief of the sufferers in the revolution, and to compensate for losses in trade and manufactures.

Taxes collected as previously. Indirect taxation to be modified.

An act to be prepared for the emancipation of slaves in the colonies.

And, lastly, the decrees already mentioned in favor of operatives.

Those subsequently enacted were similar to the preceding in purpose and spirit. They all aimed to give or promise relief to the needy, or to cherish sentiments of republicanism.

On the 23d of April the Provisional Government passed a decree for the immediate emancipation of the slaves in Guadeloupe, Martinique, and all the other French colonies; which measure is likely to be attended with similar tragic consequences to a like decree respecting St. Domingo.

On the same day the election of members to the National Assembly took place, and the great experiment was made of passing from a most restricted right of voting to universal suffrage. But as all the members from each department were chosen at once, and each elector of course voted for the whole number, there was a diminished probability of electing those who had only a narrow local popularity. Thus the department of the Seine contained 34 members.

The whole number of votes given exceeded five millions, which was about a vote for every six persons. This is nearly the same proportion as the vote given in the United States in the presidential elections,* first deducting the slaves; and it is a smaller proportion than is

* The whole number of votes given at the presidential election in 1840, was 2,402,658; and the free population was 14,575,903.

given in several of the states. Of the 300,000 votes given in the Department of the Seine, Lamartine, who had so far proved himself the master-spirit of the revolution, and had shown as much firmness in opposing mischievous popular prejudices as in encountering personal danger, received 259,800, a greater number than any of his colleagues; and he was, moreover, returned from nine other Departments. Several of his colleagues, also members of the Provisional Government, received less than half his number of votes. Twenty-five of the thirty-four were moderates.

During the election, fears were industriously excited in some of the provincial towns by the radicals of Paris, that the enemies of the republic would obtain the ascendancy, which gave rise to great excitement and commotion in those places, particularly at Rouen, to which place the government thought it prudent to send from Paris 15,000 of the National Guards, and 10,000 of the line, to quell the rioters.

The Assembly met at Paris on the 4th of May, in the spacious hall built for the occasion. About noon the members began to enter the hall, and at one o'clock the senior member, M. Andres de Poiraveau, took the chair. The members of the Provisional Government having soon after entered the hall, the president, by a messenger, invited M. Dupont de l'Eure to ascend the tribune, which he accordingly did, and there offered to read an address, but his voice being very weak from age, it was read by M. Lamartine, and was in these words:—

“Citizen representatives of the People: The Provisional Government of the republic comes to bow before the nation, and to render a signal homage to the supreme power with which you are invested.

“Elect of the people! we welcome you to this great capital, where your presence excites a sentiment of happiness and hope which will not be deceived.

“Trustees of the national sovereignty, you are about to found new institutions upon the broad basis of democracy, and to give to France the only constitution that can suit her—a republican constitution. (Here the whole Assembly rose, and with their right hands raised, cried *Vive la République!*)

“But after having proclaimed the great political law, which is about to organize definitively the country, like us, citizen representatives, you will proceed to regulate the possible and efficacious action of the government in the relations which the necessities of labor establish among all citizens, and which ought to have for their basis the sacred laws of justice and fraternity. (Renewed cries of *Vive la République!*)

“In fine, the time has arrived for the Provisional Government to resign into your hands the unlimited power with which the revolution had invested it. You know that, with regard to ourselves, this dictatorship was only a moral power, exercised in the midst of those difficult circumstances through which we have passed.

“Faithful to our origin, and our personal convictions, we have not hesitated to proclaim the Republic of February.

“To-day we shall inaugurate the labors of the National Assembly to the cry that should always salute it—*Vive la République!*”

This cry was repeated by the Assembly with the greatest enthusiasm.

M. Crémieux then, from the tribune, informed the Assembly that its session was opened, and its labors commenced on that day. He suggested to the president to invite the representatives to retire to the standing committees to verify their credentials. This being done, the Assembly adjourned amidst cries of “*Vive la République!*”

The deputies having completed the verification, re-entered the Hall at three o'clock. Members then successively ascended the tribune and proposed the admission of the deputies whose election was found valid by their respective committee. But after the first motion of this character was made, it was proposed that each members, after his admission, should take an oath of allegiance to the republic; and objections being made from several parts of the hall to the oath, which they said the Provisional Government had abolished, M. Crémieux, the Minister of Justice, then rose and stated that the oath of allegiance had been the occasion of so much scandal during the last sixty years, the Provisional Government had thought proper to abolish it. “The oath,” said he, “of every true republican is in his heart, not on his lips.”

This rejection of oaths received the unanimous sanction of the Assembly amidst shouts of “*Vive la République!*” “*Vive le Gouvernement Provisionnel!*”

The next day, May 5th, the credentials of the members having been verified, it was moved and carried that a president should be appointed to hold the office for one month. M. Buchez, on the first ballot, received 390 votes of the 727 given, and consequently was elected. M. Trebat, who was next on the list, received 231 votes. It was understood that he was the choice of the Provisional Government. MM. Recurt, Cavaignac, Cerbon, Guinard, Cormenin and Lenard were chosen vice-presidents. The temporary president then yielded the chair to the president elect, and the assembly, after a vote of thanks to the pro-tempore president and secretaries, adjourned at half after twelve at night.

Some questions relative to the seats of members having been first

disposed of on the following day, M. Dupont de l'Eure, enfeebled by age, asked permission to make the report of the Provisional Government through M. Lamartine, who accordingly read it. This paper, being an introduction to the reports of the several ministers, confined itself to general views of the character of the revolution, its principles, and consequences, and briefly adverted to some of the peculiar opinions and doctrines which had already received the sanction of the government, particularly the right to labor and instruction. Such loud applause interrupted the reading of this address, that the President was induced to remind the Assembly that marks of approbation or disapprobation of this character were forbidden. They were, however, often repeated.

He was followed by the Minister of the Interior, M. Ledru Rollin, who, in the report of the acts of his department, justified himself for the commissioners he had sent into the departments, and for the large powers confided to them. He had also armed and equipped the national guard, the movable and the stationary guards, (*la garde mobile and les corps sédentaires.*)

M. Crémieux, Minister of Justice, communicated the acts of his ministry. Such as the abolition of capital punishments, the release of prisoners, &c.

M. Louis Blanc then ascends the tribune, and adverts to the establishment at the Luxembourg for the "organization of labor," over which citizen Albert and himself had been placed. The principles on which they had acted he briefly explains.

M. Carnot, Minister of Public Instruction, discloses his views on the new system of instruction, primary, secondary and superior.

M. Lamartine being then called upon by the President for his report as Minister for Foreign Affairs, solicited a postponement on account of fatigue, and after a partial reading of some other reports, the Assembly adjourned to Monday the 8th.

M. Garnier Pagès, Minister of Finance, who had begun the reading of his report on the 6th, finished it on the 8th. After showing the state of the treasury, and the probable results of the impost and other taxes, he notices the union of the banks in the departments with the Bank of France, and the loan of fifty millions made by the government of the bank.

M. Arago reports his acts as Minister of the army and navy. He says that the Republic has the means of opposing to its enemies 500,000 men, and 85,000 horses, seconded by the national guard, and a population ready to take up arms for its independence. The Assembly gave especial marks of approbation when the minister stated that the lash had been abolished in the navy.

M. Lamartine explains to the Assembly the policy of the new

republic towards foreign nations which was pacific, as long as peace was possible. He adverts to the condition of every state in Europe, to show in the political changes which the people have fearlessly made, the effects of the principle of non-intervention avowed by France. If, however, he adds, French democracy must have its wars, instead of marching at the head of 36,000,000 of people, it may now march at the head of 88,000,000 of confederate Swiss, Italians and Germans.

All these reports were followed by loud applause, especially that of M. Lamartine, who to rare powers of declamation, added the imagination of a poet, and whose character gave the impress of truth and patriotism on all that he said.

M. Dornès proposed that the Assembly should declare that the Provisional Government deserved well of the country; that its functions had ceased, and that they should be exercised by five members, whom he was proceeding to name when he was loudly interrupted so as not to be heard. The confusion that ensued was so great, that the president, putting on his hat, declared the session suspended for half an hour. At the expiration of this time, after a stormy debate, it was decided that the subject of a temporary executive should be referred to a committee, and the vote of thanks to the Provisional Government was passed by all the members except M. Barbés and four or five others.

A large majority of the members, it was believed, wished to get rid of three or four of the members of the Provisional Government, as they had neither the confidence of the public, nor were in harmony with their associates. These were MM. Louis Blanc, Flocon, Albert and Ledru Rollin.

On the 9th, M. Peupin, Chairman of the Committee on the subject of the *ad interim* government, reported two propositions: one to appoint an executive committee of five representatives, who should name the ministers and direct the government; the other was, to elect the ministers individually by ballot, with a president of a cabinet, which was to form an executive council, responsible to the assembly. The latter proposition prevailed by a vote of 411 to 385.

The next day the five members of the executive committee were chosen by ballot. Their respective votes were as follows:

Arago	received	724	votes.
Garnier Pagès	“	715	“
Marie	“	702	“
Lamartine	“	643	“
Ledru Rollin	“	453	“

If this result did not answer the expectations of the moderates, it also disappointed the wishes of the radical minority. It showed, too, that M. Lamartine had not the same popularity in the Assembly that he had in Paris, and appeared to have in the nation. It caused no little surprise with the public, and was generally attributed to the zeal which, from policy or generosity, he had shown in behalf of the appointment of Ledru Rollin, in whose unpopularity he was thus made to share. But it is not improbable that all the factions who had ulterior projects of their own, united in opposing the popular favorite of the day, and who was likely, by his firmness, talents, and uprightness, to prove the greatest obstacle to their schemes; or possibly, a touch of personal vanity, which he is said to have, may have produced its wonted effect in a body of equals and rivals.

To every outward appearance, all the members of this numerous body were republicans at heart, and were sincerely disposed to carry out the great experiment which the people of Paris had so clamorously demanded, and the people of France had so unanimously sanctioned. The cry of "*Vive la République*," which was heard in every part of France, on the slightest occasions, burst forth from the lips of the members as if in the fullness of their hearts. Yet there was soon reason to believe that many of them were devoid of that allegiance to the republic, which they were absolved from declaring on oath, and that all the existing factions in France had their adherents and supporters in the national assembly as well as in the political clubs—the Bonapartists, the legitimists, and the Orleans family—and though the republicans, doubtless, outnumbered all these united, their strength was lessened by divisions among themselves; divisions which, having no *visible* common foe to check them, threatened to convert the dissentient republican sections into parties scarcely less hostile to one another than the secret supporters of monarchy were to them all.

Without regarding minor points of difference, the republicans of the Assembly may be principally ranged under three heads. The most violent, and perhaps, the most formidable portion, though the least numerous, consisted of men who made the mountain party of the first revolution their model; who would fain see established a revolutionary tribunal, like that of 1793, and would also have enforced their schemes by terror, proscription and blood. Another portion consisted of the friends of the "organization of labor," and other forms of communism. The last division consisted of those whose good sense and moderation were equally opposed to the frantic ferocity of the radicals, and the delusive visions of the socialists; and who appeared to constitute a majority of the members

elected from Paris, and a yet larger one of those elected in the departments, where most of the voters are landholders.

Widely as the disaffected parties differed among themselves, it soon appeared that they, without preconcert, but impelled by a common purpose, seized every occasion to cherish discontent, to encourage disturbances, and to bring the new born republic, or at least its principal functionaries, into discredit; and the restless, insubordinate spirit they succeeded in evoking, filled the well-wishers of the revolution with the liveliest apprehensions.

The Assembly soon showed their sense of the dangers to which the republic, and they, its defenders, were most exposed, by passing a very stringent law against armed assemblies, termed *atroupemens*, on the very day that the executive committee was chosen.

By this act, which was vehemently opposed, all *atroupemens*, whether armed or unarmed, are interdicted. They are liable to be dispersed by force, under the circumstances specified in the act, and those concerned in them are liable to imprisonment for a greater or less term, according to the degree of offence. Imprisonment is also extended to those who incite such *atroupemens*, by speeches, writing, or printing.

It is perhaps too soon to know the secret springs of the great popular movements of which Paris has been lately the theatre, but the following history of the dangerous *émeute* of the 15th May wears the face of probability. It was favored by some accidental circumstances, if not suggested by them.

The friends of Poland in Paris, not satisfied with the pacific policy recommended by M. Lamartine, in his report to the Assembly, had a meeting on the 11th, to devise some efficacious mode of assisting Poland, and particularly the Duchy of Posen, then in imminent danger. At this meeting deputies from several of the clubs voluntarily attended, and stated that they would get up a public demonstration on the 13th, when many thousand citizens would present themselves to the National Assembly, and demand of them assistance for Poland. This course was strongly disapproved by the meeting, which not only tried to dissuade the deputies from their purpose, but actually addressed a circular to all the clubs of Paris to the same effect. Yet the next day the journals connected with the clubs announced that the demonstration in favor of the Poles would take place on the day following (the 13th), and that all the clubs would join in it. The friends of Poland were therefore "invited to meet at 11 o'clock on the Place de la Bastille; and thence march in procession along the Boulevards. Precautions had been taken to prevent disorder."

These notices gave alarm to the government, and a large force of the National Guard was ordered to assemble at the Madeleine, to protect the independence of the Legislature.

The agitators then decided to postpone their meeting from Saturday to Monday, and notice of the postponement was given in the journals of the 12th in these words: "The central committee informs all democrats that the manifestation in favor of Poland will not take place before Monday at ten in the morning. The citizens will assemble at the Place de la Bastille."—Notwithstanding this notice, a large number assembled on Saturday, marched towards the hall of the assembly, and at the Madeleine, M. Vavin, in the name of the assembly, received their petition, and they quietly dispersed.

Another circumstance favored the purpose of the agitators. A feast of fraternity, at the expense of the government, had been announced for Sunday the 14th. But some began to apprehend that this festival would give occasion to disorder, and the Clergy, dissatisfied with the place assigned them, refused to attend. Blanqui also had intimated to his party to keep away. The delegates from the workmen of the Luxembourg took the same course; and inflammatory placards appeared beginning with the words "while the Poles are massacred, you are invited to feasts"—on these accounts the executive committee thought it prudent to postpone the festival to Sunday the 21st.

This postponement excited much discontent with the multitude of those who expected either profit or pleasure on the occasion, together with those who had come up from the Departments, and the executive committee endeavored to appease it by the promise of four gratuitous theatrical representations, and also a general review of the National Guard on the following Wednesday. They were, however, unsuccessful. The multitude dispersed in ill humor, and the deputies from the Departments resolved to join the great demonstration of the next day in favor of Poland. The executive committee were induced, on the same evening, to issue a proclamation in which they made an earnest appeal to the citizens of Paris for the preservation of order and tranquillity.

The next morning a leading journal, the "Press," contained the following prophetic warning! "The fate of Liberty in France is perhaps to be decided to-day. If the *ad interim* government and the Assembly want firmness, if they have not the courage to answer 'Peace, credit, and liberty,' to those who demand 'war, bankruptcy, and despotism,' the revolution of February will share the fate of its eldest sister. The national assembly is duly warned. Poland is the pretext, but Terror is the end."

Meanwhile the invitation of the central club had its effect. Multitudes began to assemble betimes at the Place de la Bastille on Monday morning, and about 11 o'clock a column of near 50,000 men began their march along the Boulevards, increasing as they went. Arriving at the bridge of the revolution, they found the iron gates of

the palace in which the Assembly set, were closed, and defended by the National Guard. They then made a circuit round to the entrance on the other side, where they found the gates also closed. But General Courtais, who there had the command, from some motive, not yet explained, ordered the guards to unfix their bayonets. Emboldened by this, some individuals succeeded in scaling the gates; others soon followed, and in a few minutes the court-yard of the assembly was in the possession of the multitude.

The President having stated to the Assembly, soon after he took the chair that morning, that he had received several petitions from clubs and others in behalf of Poland, and a member being about to speak on the subject, loud cries were heard outside the hall, which induced the Assembly to invite the members in the conference chambers to return to their seats. The public galleries were then forcibly entered by men carrying banners, and crying "Vive la Pologne." Several also found their way into the hall, but were turned out by the members and the officers of the assembly. Some members attempted to speak, but were prevented by others. In the confusion that ensued, the President left the chair, and withdrew from the hall, as did also the members of the executive committee. The crowd then rushed in by all the doors, and took possession of the hall.

The President soon afterwards returned, accompanied by the prefect of police, and the executive committee. A petition was then read by one of the people, while several of the members mingled with persons in blouses, occupied the tribune, and spoke at the same time. M. Louis Blanc, who requested the people to keep silence, was cheered by the mob. The petition was again read by a delegate from the clubs, who concluded by demanding the armed intervention of France in favor of Poland. The President now rose and remarked to the multitude that the assembly had heard their petition, and if they wished that body to deliberate upon it, they should retire. Blanqui, President of one of the clubs, replied, and before he concluded, adverted to the late "butchery" of their brethren in Rouen. This was a signal for cries from the people, who finally demanded a ministerial department of labor, and that Louis Blanc should be placed at the head of it. The same cry was repeated while other members were speaking, and was echoed from the galleries, crowded almost to suffocation; and the multitude, still insisting that Louis Blanc should be "minister of labor," raised him on their shoulders, or, as some say, on a table, and thus bore him in triumph through the hall, until he managed to extricate himself.

It being now announced that the National Guards were beating to arms, the greatest uproar and confusion ensued; but the people refused to leave the hall until the assembly voted that the people of Paris deserved well of their country, and that whoever ordered the

rappel to be beaten, should be declared a traitor, as had been proposed by M. Barbès; but the assembly refusing compliance, the tumult was redoubled, until Hubert, a delegate from the clubs, proclaimed from the edge of the tribune, in the name of the people, that the National Assembly was dissolved. The president then put on his hat and most of the members withdrew, according to some accounts, and according to others, he and the secretaries were forcibly turned out of their seats by the multitude. The confusion in the hall now baffles all description; six men are mounted on the borders of the tribune, and show by the violence of their gesticulations their impatience at not being heard. Some twenty men are on the President's table (bureau); three or four mount upon his chair. One man is there seen in uniform displaying a red scarf; next him is another waving a sword, a third a red flag; "no red flag" cried some, the tri-colored flag—the President's bell ringing all the while.

Despairing of a restoration of order, most of the members had left their benches, and either mingled in the throng, or retired from the hall. The crowd having become somewhat less dense, several are seen writing, at the table of the secretaries, making, as was supposed, lists of the members of a new government. Voices were heard proposing Barbès, Blanqui, Raspail, Albert, or Louis Blanc, and a few others. Then recollecting the course pursued in February, it was proposed to go to the Hotel de Ville to install them. Numbers rushed out of the hall. It was then near five o'clock. A portentous silence now followed, when all at once the sound of drums was heard in the adjoining rooms, and immediately a company of the Garde Mobile enters the hall with their muskets levelled. The intruders cried "Vive la Mobile," but on a sign from the commanding officer to the young soldiers to clear the hall, they promptly set about it. Other companies of the Guard soon arriving, the multitude made their escape by every opening they saw, and the hall in which, a short time before, was seen a mass of human beings as dense as they could be packed, now contained but a few hundred soldiers.

The National Guards continued to enter the hall, when General Courtais having made his appearance, he was received by cries of "à bas Courtais;" some of the Guard were disposed to offer him violence, but were prevented by the greater number. He was, however, placed under arrest, having been first stripped of his epaulets and sword.

At six o'clock the hall was filled with National Guards, when Lamartine entered amid the cries of *Vive l'Assemblée Nationale*, and was received with almost frantic applause. He acknowledged the services of the National Guards, in a short address, interrupted every moment by vociferous cheering. He and Ledru Rollin had been to the Hotel de Ville to detect and arrest the conspirators, and the zeal

and energy he then displayed seemed to restore the confidence of the Assembly, which had been shaken by his silence during the day, and the seeming want of precaution in the Provisional Government.

The President having resumed the chair, stated that the executive commission invited the assembly to meet them at the Luxembourg; but the assembly decided to meet them in the hall.

About nine o'clock, amidst the congratulations of the members on the happy escape of the republic, Louis Blanc, pale in the face, his clothes all torn, and supported by M. Larochejaquelin, entered the hall, or rather was rudely pushed into it by the National Guards. As he approached the tribune, cries from all quarters objected. He, however, finally reached it, and protested that he was an utter stranger to all that had recently passed in the Assembly; whatever he said met with contradiction, scorn, or contempt. While he denied any participation in the recent revolt, as he called it, he had the boldness to declare that he thought the people were right. "Enough, enough," was heard from several voices, with other contumelious expressions, and he left the tribune.

M. Marrast then informed the Assembly that the Hotel de Ville had been forcibly entered by the insurgents, who, while employed in installing a Provisional Government, were made prisoners by the National Guard. Citizens Barbès and Albert, who were among them, were, as members of this Assembly, protected from arrest. They were still at the Hotel de Ville, as their lives would have been in danger, if they had been set at liberty. The Assembly then ordered the arrest of Albert, that of Barbès and Courtais having been previously ordered.

After a vote of thanks to the National Guard, and to the delegates from the departments to the national feast, who had promptly joined the National Guards, the assembly revoked its decree of a permanent session, and adjourned at half past ten.

Every military precaution was taken the next day to defend the assembly from similar attacks. It appeared, on reading the journal of its proceedings the day before, that the president had given orders to stop beating the *rappel*, which he took occasion to justify, but apparently not to the satisfaction of all; and when he stated that he was driven from his chair, many replied that he had voluntarily quitted it.

M. Garnier Pagès, in behalf of the executive commission, informed the Assembly of what had been done to secure future order; that Barbès, Blanqui,* Albert, Soubries and Hubert, with their associates, had been arrested, and conducted to the prison at Vincennes; that the command of the National Guard had been confided to Clement

* Blanqui made his escape, but was retaken.

Thomas, and of the regular troops to General Bedeau. During his speech he was warmly and repeatedly cheered.

Decrees were proposed on the subjects of the finances, of regulations between workmen and their employers, and of further restrictions on *atroupemens*, all of which were referred to their appropriate committees.

M. Caussidière, as prefect of police, who had fallen under the suspicion of having favored the insurgents, vindicated himself at some length. The next day (17th), however, he sent in a resignation of his seat in the Assembly, which, after some questions of order, and derogatory remarks on the applicant, was accepted. It appeared in the proceedings of this day that three of Napoleon's nephews had been elected to the Assembly, to wit, two Bonapartes and M. Murat, and that they were not excluded by any law now in existence. The election of Louis Blanc in Corsica, was declared void on account of some illegalities in the election.

M. Recurt, the Minister of the Interior, announced that tranquillity was restored in Paris; that General Cavaignac was appointed Minister of War, and citizen Trouvé-Chausel, Prefect of Police. He proposed some further enactments against armed associations and sedition.

Among several communications from ministers and propositions of new laws, one from M. Trólat, Minister of the Public Works, seems to merit especial notice.

After requiring appropriations for certain canals and other public works, he asked for 3,000,000 frs. for the national workshops. He stated that the women in these shops were employed chiefly in needle work, which might be profitable, if they could find a market for it. That it was otherwise with the men, whose labors could not be regarded as really useful, and that more than 50,000 were thus unproductive. He suggests further orders for roads and canals as the remedy.

The jeopardy into which the quiet of the new republic, and perhaps its existence, had been put by the events of the 15th, seems to have stimulated the convention to proceed to the formation of a new constitution, by the appointment of a committee, until this time strangely delayed. It was decided that the committee should consist of 18 members, and on the 17th and 18th, the following persons were elected by ballot, to wit:

M. Cormenin, former member of the Chamber of Deputies.

Armand Marrast, Mayor of Paris.

Lamennais, an Abbé.

Vivien, an Ex-Deputy.

Toqueville, Ex-Deputy.

Dufaure, Ex-Deputy.

Martin (de Strasbourg), Ex-Deputy.

Woirhaye, Ex-Deputy.

Coquerel, Protestant Minister.

Touret (de l'Allier), Ex-Deputy.

Dupin, Ex-Deputy.

G. de Beaumont, Ex-Deputy.

Vaulabelle.

Odillon Barrot, Ex-Deputy.

Pagès (de l'Arige), Ex-Deputy.

Dornès, Editor of the *National*.

Considerant, Editor of the *Démocratique Pacifique*.

In the interval of one month between the appointment of this committee and the report of the constitution which they formed, the Assembly was employed in providing for the wants of the republic, according to the exigencies of the moment; but the subject of the national workshops and of regulating labor, occupied more of their time, and probably gave them more anxiety than any other. There were not many days in that interval in which these topics were not discussed. At one time it was proposed to distribute the funds appropriated to the employment of laborers among the Departments, according to their respective shares. Then to provide employment for them by new roads and canals. To make their labor more productive, task work was substituted for work by the day. Those who had been in Paris less than three months, and unable to provide for their families, should be sent into the departments. On the 29th May, the minister of public works having removed the superintendent for opposing some of his measures, and it being apprehended that the workmen would come in a body to the Assembly to demand the cause of this removal, it was found prudent to order out a large military force to prevent the movement. The relation between the laborer and his employer also called for regulation: and the expense of the new system was a heavy and increasing charge on the treasury. The number of workmen gradually grew from 12,000 to 80,000, and then in a few weeks from 80,000 to 120,000, whose annual expenditure would require upwards of 80 millions of francs. Every one felt that this state of things could not last, but the only efficient remedy being hazardous, palliatives were attempted, which did more to excite alarm and discontent with the workmen than to relieve the treasury.

On the 19th June, a constitution for the republic was reported to the Assembly. Only its most important provisions will be noticed.

After a short declaration of duties and rights, it begins with the *legislative power*. This is to be vested in a single body, to be called the National Assembly, and to consist of 750 members, except when it revises the constitution, when the number is to be 900. Its session is to be permanent, but it may adjourn as long as three months.

The suffrage is universal, and all Frenchmen, exempt from particular disabilities, as infamy, bankruptcy, &c., and 25 years of age, are eligible. The members are elected by ballot, and serve for three years. No member can accept an office held at the pleasure of the executive, the cabinet members and a few others excepted. A majority of the whole Assembly is required to enact a law. A smaller number may enact decrees of a local or private nature. It may suggest amendments to the constitution.

The *Executive Power* is vested in a President, who is elected by the people for four years, and is ineligible until after an interval of four years. If no candidate obtain a majority of the whole number of votes, a choice is then to be made from the five highest on the list. The President disposes of the armed force, but cannot command the army in person. He negotiates treaties, but they must be ratified by the National Assembly. He can pardon only on the proposition of the minister of justice, and by advice of council. He has only a temporary veto. He may point out his objections to a bill and require further deliberation, but if the assembly again passes it, it becomes a law. He appoints and removes cabinet ministers at pleasure. He appoints and removes by advice of council, military and naval commanders, prefects, the mayor of Paris, governors of colonies, and other functionaries of high rank. He appoints and removes secondary agents on the proposition of the appropriate minister. He is provided with a mansion, and has a salary of 600,000 frs. a year (about \$112,000.) A Vice President is also appointed for four years by the National Assembly, on the nomination of the President.

The *Council of State*, over which the Vice President presides, is to consist of 40 members, and they are appointed by the National Assembly for three years. They are removable only by the Assembly, on the proposition of the President. The council draws up the bills which the executive proposes to the Assembly, or which the Assembly sends to it. It exercises supervision and control according to law, over the departmental and municipal administrations. The President and Vice President, when their offices expire, are members of the council.

The provisions concerning the *Judiciary* Department are more numerous than any other. It may suffice to mention that the existing administration by prefects, and sub-prefects, is left unchanged. Some of the judges are appointed by the President, and some by the national assembly. They hold their offices for life. Justices of the peace are elected by the people. Different tribunals are prescribed to settle controversies between different departments of the government. A high Court of five judges decides on accusations by the Assembly against the President, and some other functionaries. Juries are used in criminal cases; and may by law be extended to civil

cases. The juries of the High Court consist of twenty-four persons, and a concurrence of two-thirds is required for conviction.

The *Public Force* consists of the National Guard, the army, and the navy. Every Frenchman, not excepted by law, owes military service in person. Substitutes are not allowed. The armed force is essentially obedient. It cannot deliberate.

Among the *rights guaranteed*, are those of printing, of worship, and instruction. Every man's dwelling is inviolable: so is property of all kinds, except for public uses, and on compensation being made. No one can be arrested or imprisoned, but according to law. Capital punishment in political offences, is abolished: so is confiscation of goods in all cases. Direct taxes can be laid only for one year. Among the rights of labor is recognized that of the laborer's being employed on useful public works, when he is out of employment (*en cas de chomage*). The legion of honor is maintained, but is to be modified so as to conform to democratic principles.

The *revision of the constitution* is provided for. If the National Assembly, at the end of its session, expresses a wish that the constitution be amended, wholly, or in part, it may be so amended by the assembly of revision, in three successive deliberations, at intervals of one month, and on the vote of three-fourths.

According to a resolution previously adopted, this constitution was referred to the several bureaus, and their observations are to be transmitted to the committee on the constitution, whose action will then be final.

One of the consequences of the *émeute* of May 15th, was an increased sensibility to the danger from pretenders to the sovereignty of France. Two days afterwards it was proposed that the law of April 1832, which banished the elder branch of the Bourbons, should be extended to Louis Philippe and his family; and letters from his sons, then in England, and signed François, Henry, and Louis d'Orleans, protesting against the interdict, having been communicated to the Assembly on the 24th of May, they were referred to a committee, and on the 26th the decree of banishment passed by a vote of 632 to 63.

But the Bonaparte family, having more popular favor, excited yet more apprehension with the friends of the new government. We have seen that three of Napoleon's nephews had been elected to the National Assembly; and afterwards Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, then in London, was elected to fill a vacancy in Paris, and in three other districts. Though his rash adventure, some time since, in Boulogne, had given a higher opinion of his courage than of his talents or discretion, yet, from his striking resemblance to Napoleon, he seemed to be regarded with peculiar favor by the Bonapartists and the agitators. The President of the National Assembly an-

nounced a letter from him on the 27th May, but the Assembly refused to have it read. It was subsequently proposed to repeal the law of banishment against the Bonaparte family, three of them being members of the Assembly: but the subject was postponed.

On the 12th of June the Provisional Government applied to the Assembly for 100,000 francs per month as secret service money; and while M. Lamartine was speaking in favor of it, the sound of a drum, followed by a discharge of fire-arms, was heard. Thus interrupted, he ceased speaking, and left the hall; but returning soon after, he stated that the firing heard in the Assembly had proceeded from *attroupemens*, and that it had been directed against the National Guard and its general, accompanied with cries of "*Vive Louis Napoleon!*" "*Vive l'Empéreur!*" The Assembly exhibited the liveliest indignation, with cries of "*Vive la République!*" He added, that the executive committee had taken measures to execute the law of 1832 against M. Louis Napoleon until the Assembly decided on his right to a seat there. He then read the decree of the executive committee, which was also followed by cries of "*Vive la République!*" But the next day, on the question of Louis Napoleon's* right to a seat, it was decided to admit him, some voting on one ground, and some on another; and not a few, it appeared, because they thought the exclusion would give him too much importance, and gain for him the credit of being persecuted.

For some days before, the cries of "*Vive l'Empéreur!*" "*Vive Louis Napoleon!*" were frequently heard in Paris, especially in the evening, from the multitudes collected on the boulevards, and which were made up of those who resented the still further restrictions on large gatherings of people, and of that idle, worthless class who, impatient of present misery, are ready for any change and any mischief. The recent election of M. Thiers, former minister of Louis Philippe, was a further cause of popular excitement and jealousy.

Everything indicated a growing restlessness and discontent, which was soon likely to explode; and where so much was combustible, a spark would not be long wanting.

We have seen that the system of supporting those who could not find employment elsewhere, imposed a burden on the public treasury too heavy to be borne; and that it was determined at least to lighten it, if they could not throw it off. It was accordingly decided to detach, to distant public works, portions of the public laborers, to the amount of about 13,000.

This, of course, was the signal of alarm; and, on the 22d of June,

* Very lately he has been elected a representative from Corsica, by an almost unanimous vote; but has again declined to take his seat, alleging that his presence in France might serve as a dangerous pretext for the enemies of the republic.

a body of them went to the Provisional Government for the purpose of remonstrance and complaint. M. Marie, in behalf of the government, refused to receive more than five of them; and recognizing in their spokesman one of the agitators of the 15th May, he refused to treat with him, and turning to the others he said, "You are not the slaves of this man; make known your complaints yourselves." He heard them with attention, but failed to reconcile them to the course decided on. In their report to their associates, they said, or were understood to say, that the minister had called them slaves. Fired with resentment, they cried "Down with Marie!" "Down with the Executive Committee!" "Down with the National Assembly!" "We will stay in Paris!" and decided on insurrection, as affording the only chance for revenge or relief. The plan of their attack and defence showed that it had been half decided on before, and that they had not wanted skilful advisers.

They had selected for their battle ground the eastern part of Paris, where the population consists principally of the working classes. Thence they proposed to advance by three tiers of barricades to the Hotel de Ville; and once possessed of that, they thought they would be masters of Paris. Other barricades in adjoining streets were to be erected by way of advanced guard. Their head-quarters were to be on their left wing, the Pantheon and the church of St. Severin; on the right, the Custom House, the church of St. Vincent-de-Paul, and the Clos St. Lazare, a wide plain in the neighbourhood of a railway station, on which there were many half-built houses, and a new hospital. The Faubourg St. Antoine, in the rear of these, was reserved as a place of last retreat. Altogether they constituted one connected system of defence. The insurgents held consultations during the night, and their agents were continually passing to and fro. They occasionally encountered patrolling parties whom they succeeded in disarming. They knew each other by twigs of osier, concealed in the sleeve. Those of the leaders were forked.

The next day (Friday, June 23) bands of the insurgents marched from the Place-de-la-Bastille with the flags of the national workshops; and at ten o'clock barricades were erected at Portes St. Martin and St. Denis, and then at all the places previously marked out. These barricades were raised with wonderful skill and dispatch, and were constructed, as usual, of carriages reversed, household furniture, iron rails, paving stones, bags of earth and mattresses, rudely put together, but forming a breastwork impenetrable to musket balls, and effectually impeding the progress of artillery or cavalry. On these were flying red or tri-colored flags, most of which were inscribed, "Work or Death;" or, "The Democratic and Social Republic." For some time they proceeded in this work

without interruption, to the astonishment of all; and when they were at length assailed by the National Guard, the latter, insufficient in numbers, was obliged to give way. Other rencontres took place with various success. The National Guards receiving reinforcements, the barricades at the Portes St. Denis and St. Martin were carried at the point of the bayonet. Other barricades were taken; but these advantages had been gained at a great cost of life, and the insurgents met with equal success at other points. Both sides exhibited the most desperate valor. One barricade had been three times taken and retaken. All the citizens were now awake to the dangers that threatened them, and the executive endeavored to make amends, by their present energy, for their past inertness or tardiness.

Discharges of musketry were heard the whole of the night; and the National Assembly believing that the public confidence was not, and perhaps ought not to be restored to the executive committee, determined to act with a vigor suited to the occasion. On Saturday, after adopting the widows and orphans of those who had fallen, or might fall in defence of order, they declared Paris in a state of siege, and in their names, and those of the executive committee, gave to General Cavaignac command of the whole military force.

One hour afterwards, the President of the Assembly received from the members of that committee the following communication:

“Citizen President: The Committee of the Executive Power would have been wanting at once in its duties and its honor, if it had retired before a sedition and a public danger. It retires only before a vote of the Assembly. In restoring the powers with which you had invested it, it returns to the National Assembly to devote itself with you to the common danger, and to the safety of the Republic.”

This measure of the Assembly was sustained by the public, which for some time before had entertained doubts whether the executive committee were equal to the times, or were sufficiently opposed to the wild doctrines of the communists; and it was greatly strengthened in these impressions by the passive course of the government in the beginning of the outbreak. M. Lamartine had never recovered from the effect of his efforts in behalf of Ledru Rollin, who, some thought, had exerted more influence on Lamartine than Lamartine on him; though more liberal minds admitted the truth of his poet-like vindication, that he had conspired with these dangerous visionaries “as the electric rod conspires with lightning.”

General Cavaignac lost no time in preparing to quell the insurrection. On the very day he was appointed, he assigned to several generals their different parts for the next day. His object was to prevent the further progress of the insurgents; and then dislodging

them both from their right and their left wings, to concentrate them in the Faubourg St. Antoine. By way of cutting them off from supplies of provisions and ammunition, no one was permitted to walk the streets without a passport. Various were the devices to evade this restriction. As in the barricaded streets the National Guards were frequently assailed from the windows, all were required to keep their blinds open and their windows shut. His measures met with the expected success. On Sunday, the 25th, his generals everywhere prevailed, though with great loss, and formed the appointed junction, after carrying the three positions of the Custom House, the church of St. Vincent de Paul, and the Clos of St. Lazare. At the last place, the insurgents could be dislodged in the hospital in which they had entrenched themselves only by howitzers. In these attacks Generals Renault, Lafontaine, and Neguer were killed: the last particularly regretted. Three other generals were wounded. One death, however, stood preëminent above all others. The Archbishop of Paris was permitted by General Cavaignac to use his pious intercessions with the insurgents, and succeeded in producing a cessation of arms; but on a sudden alarm, the firing being revived, he received a ball in the groin, which proved mortal on the second day. The insurgents lamented this sad accident, and declared themselves innocent of it.

On the same day General Cavaignac, by proclamation offered pardon to the insurgents, on their laying down their arms, of which offer, however, they did not avail themselves. He in like manner disarmed such corps of the National Guard as had refused to join in the defence of the republic. A third proclamation suppressed some nine or ten journals that were either disaffected to the existing government or favored sedition.

The insurgents having been driven from all the points they had occupied both on the left and the right, were found on Monday collected in the Faubourg St. Antoine and the Pepincourt quarters. All the streets there were intersected by strong and high barricades. In the Faubourg alone there were sixty-five: and all the inhabitants had freely, or by compulsion, joined the insurgents. Their numbers at that point then amounted, it is estimated, to about 30,000. Frustrated in their plans, and hopeless of success, at an early hour they offered to capitulate on conditions, but they were answered, it was too late; and were further told that if they did not surrender unconditionally by 10 o'clock that morning, the Faubourg would be carried by assault, and the vanquished put to the sword. Preparations were accordingly made for the assault, by cannon, by howitzers, and a mine, and by the approach of General Lamoricière to attack them in flank. The insurgents then asking a parley, surrendered at discretion.

The congratulations of the people of Paris were redoubled when they ascertained that on one of the insurgents was found the following draft of a decree :

“Art. 1. All citizens whose taxes exceed 200 francs, are deprived of their civil and political rights for ten years.

“Art. 2. All the property, real or personal, belonging to citizens who have exercised any public functions whatever since 1815, shall be confiscated.

“Art. 3. The constitution of France shall be that of 1793.

“Art. 4. The army is disbanded.”

A flag was also brought to a committee of the Assembly inscribed in red letters.

“Victorious, Pillage.
Vanquished, Conflagration.”

On most of the captured insurgents, sums of money, from one to five louis d'ors, and promises (without signatures) of five francs a day were found. These facts furnished satisfactory evidence that this insurrection is not wholly attributable to the discontent and alarm of the workmen, but had been also stimulated by the money of those who had ulterior views of their own; but it seems highly improbable, if not absurd, to suppose that they were bribed by *foreign* gold. Without doubt its source will be hereafter discovered.

It afforded no small gratification to the lovers of order and the well wishers of the republic, that the National Guards of the departments flocked to Paris in great numbers as soon as they heard of the insurrection. They came from Rouen, Havre, Orléans, Tours and Bordeaux, to the amount of near 100,000 men. Some of them arrived in time to share in the conflicts of Sunday. The Parisians had no doubt of their safety from the time that they began to arrive, but it appeared that the force at the disposal of the government in Paris was amply sufficient for the suppression of the revolt.

A similar insurrection was attempted at Marseilles on the 22d, by seditious workmen, thus showing a correspondence with those of Paris, but on the following day it was suppressed by the National Guards.

Thus terminated the first, or perhaps second popular attempt to overturn the government which the people themselves had made by their representatives, freely and fairly chosen, within a few weeks after it had gone into operation.

The Assembly on the 27th appointed a committee of investigation, and instructed it to inquire into the origin of the insurrection, and its relations with the commotion of the 15th May. It decreed that all those then in custody who had taken part in the insurrection, should be transported to some of the French colonies other than those of the Mediterranean. Their wives and children are permitted to accompany them. The leaders and instigators of the insurrection, and

convicts taken in arms, are to be judged by the councils of war. Two legions of the National Guard who had not aided in suppressing the revolt in the Faubourgs St. Antoine and Jaques, are disbanded. The whole of that guard to be purged, and arms hereafter to be confided only to safe hands.

Among other remedial and precautionary measures, decrees were proposed against secret societies; also for the regulation of clubs; for the strict enforcement of the security of 100,000 francs, required of the public journals; and for the abolition of the national workshops, substituting other assistance to the workmen.

The result of these measures, as well as the investigation, will be anxiously expected by all, whether they wish well or ill to the revolution, and whether they confide in the stability of the new republic, or distrust it.

The number of the insurgents, according to the best estimates, and as reported by Cavaignac himself, was about 50,000. The number of prisoners was at first 7,000, afterwards as high as 14,000, but the number now on hand is 8,990. How to dispose of them is a question of serious difficulty. The killed were supposed to be 4,000, sometimes rated much higher, and the wounded 6,000. Ten general officers were killed and wounded.

The purpose for which dictatorial power had been confided to General Cavaignac having been fulfilled, he resigned it to the Assembly. A vote of thanks to him and his brave associates was then passed; and the Assembly, by an unanimous vote, vested in him the chief executive authority, with the power of appointing his ministers.

The council formed in pursuance of this authority, is composed at present of the following members, (having undergone some changes since its first organization:)

General Cavaignac, President.

M. Marie, Minister of Justice.

M. Bastide, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

M. Senard, Minister of the Interior.

General Lamoricière, Minister of War.

M. De Verninhac, Minister of Marine.

M. Goodchâux, Minister of Finance.

M. Recurt, Minister of Public Works.

M. Touret, Minister of Commerce.

M. Vaulabelle, Minister of Public Construction.

M. Marie was elected President of the National Assembly in the place of M. Senard, but on his becoming a member of the executive council, M. Marrast was chosen President.

General Chargarnier is commander of the National Guard at Paris.

The administration of General Cavaignac is thus far distinguished by prudence, energy and firmness. He has determined to dispel at

once the fallacy of the "organization of labor," and suppress the workshops. He admits that their original design was good and equitable, but that they had become menacing to the liberty of the republic. At the time of the outbreak, the registers in the national workshops amounted to 106,000, and to relieve the distress consequent on their suppression, he has ordered that aid should be granted to the operatives who stand in need of it. His attention is also anxiously and unremittingly directed to devise some method as a remedy for the disordered condition of the finances. His conduct in respect to the vanquished has extorted general praise. He acts with humanity, but is determined not to give the disaffected another opportunity. Happy will it be for France if he proves himself equal to the emergency, and be what he is represented to be, more of a Washington than a Napoleon. With a popularity almost unbounded, and wielding the power of an office, which, though bestowed upon him by the representatives of the people, is in fact a military dictatorship, he has assumed a fearful responsibility, and to insure the successful discharge of it, should possess in an eminent degree the qualities of sound judgment and stern integrity, with a love of country superior to the love of power.

GREAT BRITAIN.

England, habitually in a state of political fermentation, has lately presented the spectacle of a more thorough suspension of civil strife than she has seen for many years, and greater quiet of the people than almost any part of Europe. No sooner was the news of the recent revolution in France spread abroad, than the people of nearly every European state, as if by concert, demanded of their hoary monarchies a recognition and an extension of their civil rights; nay, more—they seemed prepared to follow the example of France, and to coerce their rulers into compliance by the exertions of physical force. On all this outburst of popular feeling the British ministry looked with seeming indifference, and in some cases, with complacency; for most of its friends were the favorers of popular rights and liberal principles of government.

But, after a short time, many of their own people caught the prevalent contagion, and exhibited similar signs of discontent to those of other parts of Europe. In Ireland, sympathy with the French in casting off the shackles of monarchy readily coalesced with a lively sense of their own sufferings from poverty, and the alleged wrongs of the government; and in the heightened fervor of their feelings, they believed the day was at hand when they could effect their desired separation from Great Britain. At their public meetings, rebellion against the authority of the government was openly counselled and vindicated by their leaders; and if treason could be

committed by words, most of the Irish orators might be convicted of that crime.

In England, too, there had been for some ten or twelve years a numerous association, which, separating itself from the two great parties of Whig and Tory, both of whom they seemed to regard as friendly to the existing constitution, and as disputing only about the powers and emoluments of office, determined to set up a party of their own, in support of a few great principles, which they wished to make the basis of a new political charter; and hence they obtained the name of Chartists. Their principles were five in number, and were,—universal suffrage; vote by ballot; annual parliaments; pay to the members; and no property qualification to eligibility.

These people, encouraged by the success of the revolution in France, and the favorable reception it met with in almost every part of Europe, thought it would be likely to advance their cause to make a demonstration of their strength. They presumed that a general meeting at this time would at once animate the zeal of their own body, attract many new converts, and find a forbearance from the parliament and the ministry which they had not hitherto experienced. Such a meeting accordingly was called, to take place in London on the 10th of April, for the purpose of presenting their petition in a body to Parliament; and their numbers being purposely exaggerated by themselves and other malcontents, no little anxiety was felt by the middle and upper classes of London, who set a high value on their comforts, and are sufficiently prompt to fancy them in jeopardy. Indeed, from the preparations made to prevent mischief, it seemed that the government itself did not lightly regard the danger. Pains were taken to fortify the bank, the tower, and some other public buildings against sudden attacks; and while the military were studiously kept in the background, that course was dictated rather by a wish not to provoke an unnecessary collision with the assembled multitude, than by a contempt for their strength. The civil force, however, was enlarged to an unprecedented extent, and men of all classes, from the peer to the cobbler, qualified as special constables to assist the policemen—a body of several thousand—to keep the peace. Even the strategy and experience of the Duke of Wellington were put in requisition to provide for every adverse contingency, and, above all, to prevent the construction of barricades.

The day, supposed to be thus big with great events, at length arrived, and a more striking illustration of Esop's "mountain in labor" was never exhibited. The body who clamored for reform, and threatened a revolution, did not exceed a fourth, or, as some say, a tenth of the constables appointed to keep them in order. They assembled to the amount of some ten thousand, or more, in Fitzroy

Square, marched quietly along Tottenham Court Road to Blackfriars Bridge, which they were permitted to cross, whence they proceeded to Kennington Common, their great focus for the day; where the whole number of persons, Chartists, lookers-on, &c., did not exceed 50,000. After some show of speaking and resolutions, they again crossed the Thames, not, however, in one body as before, and delivering their monster petition to Parliament, they dispersed. This petition, which its friends absurdly boasted to be signed by more than 5,000,000 of names, was found to contain but 1,900,000, many of which are spurious, and written by their enemies in derision.

Notwithstanding the ridicule that always more or less attaches to unfounded alarms, this affair caused no small gratification to the friends of order and the constitution, since it afforded them an evidence of their own strength and of the weakness of the Chartists, which they could not have had if the Chartists themselves had not voluntarily furnished it.

The changes sought by the Chartists, however reasonable they may seem in the abstract, especially to us in the United States, are too foreign to the settled opinion and habits of the people of England, to stand any chance for adoption; but the less radical reforms now advocated by Messrs. Hume, Cobden, and other liberals of the House of Commons, enforced by the same perseverance and machinery as that which procured the repeal of the corn laws, are more likely to be successful, especially if the fortunes of civil liberty should not prove disastrous in France.

Ever since the success of steam navigation on the ocean, it has been supposed that it would hereafter affect the character, not only of all maritime wars, but probably influence the entire warfare of maritime nations. This opinion has lately received the support of the Duke of Wellington. In a letter from him to Sir John Burgoyne, which, though written in January of the preceding year, was published only last spring, he admitted the practicability of an invasion of England from France, by means of steam, and he earnestly recommended that the future system of national defence should look to that contingency. He points out the various approaches to London, and maintains that, except at Dover Castle, there was not a spot in England where infantry might not be thrown on shore. He adverts to the contributions levied by victorious armies, and to the fact that France has been in possession of nearly every capital in Europe. He urges that the spirit of the people is not sufficient without organization, and that at that time not more than 5,000 men could be put under-arms. He says that, on a declaration of war, seven places which he names should have garrisons amounting to 65,000 men; and he recommends that the mi-

litia be organized and disciplined, as in time of war, to the amount of 150,000 men.

This letter seems to have been ungraciously received by many of both parties; some not liking his recommendation of further public expenditure, and an increase of military force; whilst others regarded his policy as betraying the fears of conscious weakness. Yet the opinions of a man as remarkable for his judgment in military matters as any other quality of a great captain, must always merit respect and consideration.

In consequence of the increased restlessness and disaffection manifested in Ireland, and in some parts both of England and Scotland, since the recent revolution in France, the ministry thought it advisable to ask of Parliament an alien law, which gives the government a discretionary power to arrest all foreigners whom it deemed dangerous; and also a law punishing seditious speeches, as well as written libels, and converting some species of treason into felony, punishable with transportation: both of which were passed without difficulty.

The friendly relations between Great Britain and Spain have lately received some interruption by what may be regarded as a diplomatic *faux pas*.

Mr. Bulwer, the British minister to Spain, received instructions from Lord Palmerston, dated March 16, "to advise the Spanish government to adopt a legal and constitutional system;" that the late events in France ought to indicate to that government the danger to which it is exposed by attempting "to govern a country in a manner opposed to the sentiments and opinions of the nation;" and that the Queen of Spain "would act wisely by calling to her councils some of the men in whom the liberal party places confidence."

After several interviews which Mr. Bulwer had with the Spanish minister, on the subject contained in these instructions, finding his representations unavailing, he decided on trying the effect of the instructions themselves, a copy of which he enclosed to the Spanish minister, the Duke de Sotomayer, in a note of his own, dated April 7, 1848.

In that note he expresses his desire that the Spanish government would "return without delay to the ordinary forms of the government established in Spain," by convoking the Cortes, and giving them explanations calculated to efface the impressions made by certain arrests. The Spanish minister is reminded that what especially distinguished "the cause of Queen Isabella" from that of her competitor, was "the promise of constitutional liberty;" and that "this circumstance powerfully contributed to obtain the sympathy and support of Great Britain in favor of her majesty."

Three days afterwards the Duke de Sotomayer returned his answer to Mr. Bulwer, in which he says that Lord Palmerston's note was already known to the Spanish government, as it had been previously published in an opposition journal at Madrid, which thus had the advantage of being made acquainted with the dispatches intended for the Spanish government before they reached their destination. He states that, at the date of Lord Palmerston's letter, March 16, the Cortes were then in session; the press was completely free; and the government had adopted a course of kindness and conciliation which its enemies were compelled to admit. "What then," he asks, "could induce the British Minister of Foreign Affairs to make himself the interpreter of the feelings and opinions of Spain; to recommend to an independent nation the adoption of legal and constitutional measures; and to advise it to admit into its council men of this or that political opinion?" He protests against the extraordinary pretensions of Lord Palmerston, and asks what would he say, if the Spanish government were to interfere in the acts of the British cabinet, and to recommend "more liberal measures to alleviate the frightful condition of Ireland? What if the Spanish minister in London were to follow the example of Mr. Bulwer, and to pass harsh censures on the measures prepared by the British ministry to repress the aggression which threatens it? What if the Spanish government were to demand more consideration and justice in behalf of the unfortunate people of Asia? What, in fine, would he say, if he was reminded that the late events in Europe give a salutary lesson to all governments, not excepting that of Great Britain; and, consequently, that the administration of the state should be given to the illustrious Peel? He would say what the Spanish government now says, that he does not recognize the right of any power to make such observations, and that he rejects them as offensive to the dignity of a free and independent nation."

Entertaining these sentiments, he returns Lord Palmerston's and Mr. Bulwer's notes, and at the same time declares, that, in case of his again interfering in the private affairs of the Spanish government, his dispatches would be returned without further remark.

Mr. Bulwer had subsequent communications, oral and written, with the Spanish minister, with a view to explanation, but on the 11th May he received a formal dismissal. The minister charged Mr. Bulwer, among other things, with having fomented an insurrection in Spain.

After the debate in Parliament on this subject, on the 5th of May, the public in England were at first disposed to censure the ministry for its unbecoming interference in the internal concerns of the Spanish government, but Mr. Bulwer, now become Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer, having published his vindication in a long letter to

Lord Palmerston, on the 30th of May; and further explanation having been given in discussing a resolution of implied censure offered in the House of Commons on the 5th of June, the ministers received the support of men of both parties, and the resolution was rejected without a division.

The abrupt dismissal of the British minister from Madrid, and the previous return of his dispatches, when he was obeying instructions, being regarded as indignities to the nation, apparently had an influence on this vote, and the pride of fallen greatness was more than met by the pride of present power. Yet it is not seen how Spain, however prudence may have made her halt awhile in her resentment, could have taken a very different course without a surrender of all self-respect. The letter of Lord Palmerston being officially shown to the Spanish minister, after, too, its contents had been published, was the same as if it had been addressed to him; and though it were not, Mr. Bulwer's note, written purposely for him, was still more offensive. We must think that the recollection of the obligations conferred on Spain by Great Britain, and even of her superior power, should rather have prevented a taunting and dictatorial tone than have suggested it.

The Spanish government has since sent a special envoy, Count de Mirasol, to Great Britain for the purpose of making friendly explanations, but, being refused access to Lord Palmerston, he has returned. Senor Isturitz has also returned to Madrid, Lord Palmerston having, in a letter of signal ability, intimated to him that "he would probably think it expedient to return." It is not, however, supposed that this breach, growing out of a sense of wounded dignity, will lead to any worse consequence than some further humiliation of the weaker power.

The principal objects of public policy which have engaged the attention of the British Parliament, during its present session, are the navigation laws and the sugar colonies.

As these laws give a preference to British ships over those of other countries, however more cheaply they may carry, the advocates of free trade, to be consistent, required their repeal. Yet as, in addition to the general arguments in favor of protection, these laws contribute to the naval strength of Great Britain, by increasing the number of her seamen, and very large interests are directly benefited by excluding the competition of foreign ships, a decided majority of the nation seems to be averse to the repeal, there being 32,903 petitioners against, and but 2,268 in favor of it, though it was known to be a ministerial measure. The people of Canada, to whom the new free-trade tariff was unacceptable, by admitting the timber of Norway and Sweden upon nearly the same terms as their own, are greatly in favor of abrogating the navigation laws, by

which measure the ships of all nations would find their way to the St. Lawrence, and their trade both in their own products and those drawn from the United States would be greatly increased. The gains to the Canadians from this source would more than compensate them for what they may lose of the timber trade. This consideration, doubtless, constitutes with the British ministry one of the recommendations of the repeal.

The condition of the British West Indies continues to present to the British statesmen a subject of undiminished difficulty. On the one hand, the advocates of free trade, and the people of England generally, insist that the duties on sugar shall be equalized no less than those on corn. On the other, the complaints of the West Indies, that they must be ruined if they are exposed to the unrestricted competition of slave-grown sugar, and the ruinous losses an approach to that competition has already caused, have produced much sympathy in and out of Parliament, and their prayers for relief have derived great support from the very palpable fact that the emancipation of the slaves in the British colonies, and the consequent decrease of the sugar they produce, have encouraged, and still encourage the introduction of slaves into Brazil and Cuba. The enemies of the African slave trade, and of slavery in general, are thus strongly appealed to in behalf of the West India planters, and in opposition to the abolition of the discriminating duties on sugar, which affords them protection by enhancing the price of sugar in Great Britain.

Lord John Russel, the British premier, has so far yielded to their well-founded complaints, as to propose, on the 16th of June, an advance to the colonies, by the government, of £660,000 (upwards of \$3,000,000), to be expended in bounties upon the importation of immigrants, as laborers; and to suspend, in part, the declining scale of duties on foreign sugar, until 1854. But the last mentioned measure meets with opposition from both parties; one thinking that it will afford no sensible relief to the planters; the other, that it would be a retrograde step in the system of free trade, and tax the British consumer for the benefit of the West India planter. With this opposition, it remains to be seen whether the strength of the ministry will be sufficient to carry it through both Houses of Parliament.

On the bill for rendering Jews eligible to Parliament, which the minister seemed to have much at heart, he was in a minority of thirty-five in the House of Lords. Should he be also defeated on the bills respecting the West Indies, and the navigation laws, especially in the House of Commons, a change of administration will probably be the consequence, according to the usage of that country, when the minister is in the minority, not merely because it

affords evidence that he has lost the confidence of the nation, or that his measures are not in accordance with public sentiment, but because, also, the machinery of that government must soon cease to act when its executive and legislative powers are not in harmony.

The Chartists have redoubled their efforts of late, by way of making amends for their notable failure on the 10th of April, but they seem to create no alarm. On the 16th of July, six Chartists were convicted of sedition and sentenced each to two years' imprisonment.

There is apparent, at present, in the British councils, a cessation of party spirit that has been rarely witnessed, and every question discussed in Parliament, is supported and opposed by men of both parties indiscriminately.

Ireland continues in a troubled state, and the repeal agitations have assumed a very alarming appearance. Mr. Smith O'Brien and Mr. Meagher, prominent agitators, were arrested and tried for sedition, in May last, but were discharged in consequence of the disagreement of the jury. About the same time, John Mitchell, the editor of the *United Irishman*, was arrested on a charge of treason, tried on the 26th of May, and convicted. The next day he was sentenced to transportation for fourteen years. When brought up for sentence, he told the court that he retracted nothing—that the cause in which he had been engaged had only commenced, and that he could say as the Roman patriot did when his hand was thrust into the fire, "three hundred are ready to do as I have done." He was sent to Bermuda, to be incarcerated on board the *Thames* convict hulk. Great excitement ensued on his removal from the country, and a large sum of money was raised for the support of his wife and children, who were adopted by the people of Ireland. The types of the *United Irishman* were seized by the government, but a new journal was immediately brought out under the title of the "*Irish Felon*." The proprietor of this last named paper, Mr. Martin, was arrested in July, on a charge of treason, and sent to Newgate, with Mr. C. G. Duffy, editor of the "*Nation*," apprehended on a similar charge. Other arrests have also recently been made; among them are the editors of the "*Tribune*," and Mr. Meagher. The latter gentleman was taken in Waterford, and but for his own urgent entreaties to the contrary, would have been rescued by the people, who collected in great numbers, erected barricades, and threatened the police. He was afterwards liberated on bail, and is now, with Mr. O'Brien, actively engaged in organizing and inspecting the clubs; who boast that they number over 100,000 men, armed and ready to battle for liberty. A map of Dublin has been prepared, and the points of meeting, when the outbreak takes place, arranged. In the meantime the breach between the moral and physical force repealers has become wider than it was before. The clergy of the arch-diocese of Tuam have held a meeting on the subject of a

proposed amalgamation of the two sections, but after mature consideration, announced their repugnance to the union, and John O'Connell is making an attempt to prolong the existence of the "Repeal Association." It is admitted, however, on all hands, that the crisis is approaching. The government had adopted very rigorous measures. The peers and members of the House of Commons, connected with Ireland, presented, on the 6th of July, a memorial to the government, calling attention to the organization and increase of clubs of a treasonable, revolutionary and dangerous character, whose avowed object is the repeal of the Union by violent means, and also to the fact of the manufacture and sale of formidable weapons with which a large body of the population are armed; and urging the imperative duty devolving upon the government, to assert the authority of law and order—to suppress the clubs—and to afford to loyal subjects the protection to which they are entitled.

On the 21st of July, Lord John Russel gave notice of his intention to bring in a bill empowering the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland to apprehend and detain until the 1st of March, 1849, any person suspected of conspiracy against her majesty's government. On the 25th, the act was passed. The Lord-Lieutenant has proclaimed the cities of Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and the town of Drogheda to be under the act of the last session, by which the police are authorized to search for arms, and to take into custody all persons who are found to be in possession of them without a license. He has also issued his proclamation suspending the Habeas Corpus act. Several arrests have been made; and, according to latest accounts, O'Brien, Meagher and others had fled from the officers of justice, and were in the interior, surrounded by the armed peasantry, and determined to resist the execution of the law. Thus each party is girding itself for the conflict. The government, by the augmentation of armed resources—by arrests—by the suppression of the press and the exercise of legal despotism: the people, by prodigious activity in the enrolment of clubs—by arming and disciplining themselves, and by the most stirring appeals to the passions of the populace. This state of things cannot long continue, and the agitators of Ireland must soon succumb before the formidable preparations and the prompt and energetic measures of the government, or they must commence the mighty struggle which is to fill their land with carnage, and peril their hopes of emancipation upon the battle field.*

GERMANY.

The revolution in France operated on every part of Germany with the force of an electric shock, prepared as it had been by the writings of her speculatists, and by the gradual spread of republican

* See the Quarterly Chronicle for later accounts.

sentiments. Popular commotions took place in all the large cities, and in all the cry was for a political constitution, which should give the people a share in legislation, establish the liberty of the press, abolish odious restrictions, reform the judicial system, and otherwise extend popular rights.

But amid this general desire of political change, the republican spirit appeared to have extended to a comparatively small number, and the greater part, even of the German populace, manifested personal regard towards their hereditary sovereigns.

At Berlin, on the 16th of March, a large concourse of people assembled before the palace, clamoring for the constitution and political reforms which had been long before promised them by their sovereign. The king, profiting by a recent example, was disposed to temporize. He appeared before the people, renewed his promise, and, as an earnest of his sincerity, the next day abolished the censorship of the press, and made all questions of libel amenable only to the ordinary courts of justice. He, on the same day, issued a manifesto of his views in convoking his states on the 27th of the succeeding month, which were to bring about a Germanic confederation. He stated, that under that confederation there should be a military system of defence for Germany, and a German army, under a German flag; and he one day hoped also to see a German navy. There should also be a German federal tribunal, to settle all political differences between the princes and their states, and between the different governments of the confederation; a general Zollverein, adopting the same measures, weights and commercial rights; and, lastly, the liberty of the press, with the same securities against its abuse in every part of Germany. To further these desirable objects, he accelerated the meeting of the diet from the 17th to the 2d of April.

A general confederation of the different States of Germany had been a favorite project in that country ever since the power of Napoleon had so seriously threatened their independence; and a year or two before, the prospect of such a confederation would have satisfied the wishes of the Prussian people, and even now, though those wishes had acquired a wider scope, the bare promise of it had procured for the king great popular favor.

On the 18th of March, the people assembled at the palace to manifest their gratified feelings. They began to cry out for the withdrawal of the troops from the palace, and expressed, with loud outcries and hurrahs, their joy at the concessions which the king had made. The king came out on the balcony, and was greeted with an immense shout of joy; the crowd, which was very dense, pressed on in front of the palace, to welcome his majesty. Seeing them advance somewhat closer than was thought advisable, a staff officer

of cavalry rode forward to make them retire ; and as it seemed evident that he was about to be treated roughly, a detachment of cavalry attempted to support him. At this time two shots were fired, but from what quarter it was impossible to tell.

The troops having attempted to disperse the multitude, the people rushed to their aid, and a furious conflict ensued, which lasted for thirteen or fourteen hours. The people were victorious, and the first fruits of their success was the liberation of the Polish prisoners in Berlin. Many of those who had been thus induced to measure arms with the soldiery were said to be of the highest respectability, and had come out for the purpose of returning thanks to the king for his concessions. The number of lives lost was estimated at 2000, and for the first time the people were found dictating to their monarch.

The Polish prisoners, thus set free, immediately repaired to Posen, where they established a provisional government, under the name of a "National Committee."

It was not long after this civil commotion, or revolution, as some have called it, at Berlin, that hostilities broke out between Prussia and Denmark ; and the dispute, by the singularity of its origin and pretexts, has excited an interest, which the momentous events of the French revolution have not been able to extinguish.

The territory of the King of Denmark comprehends two duchies lying out of the limits of Denmark Proper ; one, the Duchy of Holstein, confessedly a part of Germany, and by virtue of which the King of Denmark was a German prince ; the other, the Duchy of Schleswig, which was, like Denmark, of Scandinavian origin. The king, Frederick VII., who had ascended the throne in January last, very soon afterwards, according to his previous purpose when crown prince, offered his subjects a free constitution ; and, at a meeting of deputies to form such a constitution, the Duchy of Holstein refused to be incorporated with the rest of Denmark, lest, under the new constitution, they should become identified with the Scandinavian population, and thus lose their German character and connections, which they wished to cherish. The king consented to the separation, and while the deputies proceed in the formation of their constitution, the French revolution takes place. This event gave new strength and opened new views to the German party in Schleswig, so that it succeeded in prevailing on that duchy to declare, through a "Provisional Government," that they, too, refused to be incorporated with the States of Denmark, and would become a German State with Holstein, with which they were inseparably united.

The King of Denmark, considering the pretensions of Schleswig unfounded, appealed to his people, who unanimously resolved to support his rights. Troops were accordingly sent there, which were

victorious in the first engagement, and would have soon reduced the rebellious duchy to submission, but for the intervention of Prussia.

After the rising of the people at Berlin, and the ascendancy of the liberal party in Prussia, the Provisional Government of Schleswig sent a deputation to the King of Prussia to ask his protection, upon which he declared by proclamation that the Duchies of Holstein and Schleswig were independent states; that they were inseparably united; that the male line of succession prevailed in both; and that he was ready to protect their claims. In accordance with this declaration, he invades the territory of a neighbor, who had given him no offence, and without any authority from the German Diet, to which they were both amenable.

But, after the invasion, and when Holstein and part of Schleswig were in the possession of Prussian troops, the self-created diet at Frankfort gave a formal authority for those acts of the King of Prussia.

German writers have defended the claims of the people of Schleswig on some refined doctrines founded on their common *nationality* with Germans, by speaking the same language, and probably having the same manners and customs: and the Prussians, in vindication of their course, maintain that it is of importance to preserve the distinction between German and Scandinavian states in this instance, since they differ in their laws of succession as to the sovereign power; so that, in case the present dynasty of Denmark should become extinct, the sovereignty of Schleswig would devolve on one individual, if the German laws, which regard only the male line, prevail, and would devolve on another, if the laws of Denmark, which does not exclude the female line, prevail.

The present king is said to be only forty years of age, and to have a lineal male successor; yet, upon this remote contingency of a question that is comparatively insignificant, and which may be as easily settled hereafter as now, the King of Prussia does not hesitate to invade the territories of an unoffending, but weaker neighbor; that is, actually make present war, to avoid the very improbable chance of war at some distant day.

Denmark has profited by her superior naval power in defence of her rights, both by seizing the Prussian ships in her harbors, and by blockading Dantzic and the Hanse towns. Prussia, however, by means of her far greater military power, has succeeded in obtaining entire possession, not only of the duchies of Holstein and Schleswig, but also, for a time, occupied Jutland.

In the meantime, Great Britain has interfered in order to bring about a pacification between the belligerents, from her desire to preserve the peace of Europe; and to justify her intervention, she fortunately had given to Denmark her express guarantee of this very

duchy of Schleswig, in the reign of George I. Sweden and Russia also threaten to take the part of Denmark, and the diet of Norway has actually voted money to aid her cause. These joint efforts were so far availing as to bring about an armistice for three months between Prussia and Denmark, which was concluded at Malmo, between Count Portalis, on the part of the King of Prussia, and the Swedish and Danish ministers for foreign affairs. By this armistice it was stipulated that the German and Danish troops should withdraw, and that the provisional government should carry on the administration until a new administration could be formed from the duchies, to consist of two members to be named by Denmark, and two by Prussia; a president to be nominated by the four, and, in case of their disagreement, by England.

To this arrangement the duchies have refused to assent: the feeling against it is very strong in Germany; and Gen. Wrangel, who claims to be a confederate, as well as Prussian general, declines a compliance with it until he shall have full power from Frankfort.

It is therefore supposed that hostilities will immediately recommence; although Lord Palmerston has expressed a hope that the truce will be maintained; and it remains now to be seen whether Denmark, that suffered so much for taking sides with France, during the empire, is about to be further dismembered, or whether, as some apprehend, the Germans, ambitious of becoming a naval power, are so bent on obtaining the important maritime territory of Denmark as to risk a war to obtain it.

In the grand duchy of Posen, that part of ancient Poland which was allotted to Prussia, the Poles vainly indulged the hope that, as a consequence of the liberal political principles then in the ascendant in Prussia, and apparently favored by the king himself, they might obtain a free constitution for themselves, though they should not recover their independence. Their cause was espoused by Prince Czartoryski, who proceeded from Paris to Berlin for that purpose, and whose character afforded a sufficient security for prudence and moderation; but his efforts were fruitless. It appears from his statements that collisions broke out between the Poles and the Germans in Posen, which abated the enthusiasm of the former, and diverted them from their purpose. He complains of the policy of the Prussian government, which induced Germans to settle in the duchy of Posen, and asserts that none of its promises to his countrymen had been fulfilled. He says that, in attaching the German population of Posen to the German confederation, Frederick William virtually had reduced the duchy to one-half, which was equivalent to another partition of Poland.

A rising was soon after attempted by the Poles, but, opposed as they were by the German inhabitants of Posen, they were obliged,

after some bloody combats, to submit to the power of the government early in May, and the assembly at Frankfort has since rejected a proposition for the independence of Posen.

The general diet, or assembly, called by the king to consider a constitution for Prussia, already prepared for them, met at Berlin, after one or two postponements, on the 22d of May. The publication of it has caused great disappointment to the liberals; and a copy of it has even been publicly burnt in Berlin by the people. The final result of the labors of this assembly is awaited with great impatience.

In Austria, where the seeming tranquillity produced by the jealous vigilance of its government had been imputed to popular ignorance and apathy, the people were no less roused than in other parts of Germany. A rising of the people took place in Vienna in March, and its immediate cause seemed to be hostility to Prince Metternich, who had so long ruled the destinies of that great empire. His arbitrary and heartless system of government had become so odious that his banishment was loudly called for, and he was at length obliged to fly. The castle of Johannisburg, and the domain appertaining to it, had been, many years before, granted to him by the emperor. The palace was attacked and burnt down by the mob, and the cellars plundered of much of the celebrated wine there stored away.

But this was only the beginning of the emperor's troubles. The people of Hungary, who had political privileges far greater than his Austrian subjects, and had always shown a lively jealousy in behalf of these rights, insisted on having a prince of their own, and on separating themselves from the empire. Bohemia, too, which had its own laws and customs, was not slow to follow the example; and lastly, the emperor's Italian dominions, always hating their German masters, had determined to throw off the yoke, and were likely to be aided by all the rest of Italy. Should the emperor be deprived of these parts of his dominions, Austria, hitherto one of the four great potentates which ruled the destinies of Europe, would be reduced to a third-rate power. Probably, from the 14th of March to the present moment, there has scarce been a day that the emperor has not heard of some outbreak of the people, or revolt, or visible symptom of political change in some portion of his wide-spread, but heterogeneous dominions.

Overawed by the first popular tumult in Vienna, he not only promised the people a liberal constitution, but he liberated all those who were either confined or were arrested for high treason and other political offences. But the people soon lost all confidence in the ministers, and, on the 14th April, there were strong symptoms of another popular commotion, to effect a change in the administration. There were even evidences of a disposition to attempt the establishment of a republic: but it was confided to a few; for, independent

of the emperor's personal popularity, but few of his German subjects had yet thought of any other than a monarchical government.

The *project* of the promised constitution was promulgated on the 25th of April. It consisted of fifty-nine articles, and its terms were as liberal as could have been expected. It provided for a legislative body, or parliament, of two houses. The first to contain from 250 to 300 members, to be appointed by the emperor and the great landed proprietors. The sons of the emperor, and of the presumptive heir, to be also members. The lower house to be elected by the people; one member for every 30,000 inhabitants. The electors to be all who are twenty-four years of age, have resided one year in their district, and are independent. Such are also eligible. Ministers are responsible, but not the sovereign. All citizens are eligible to office, without distinction of religion.

The executive power is vested in the emperor. He appoints to office, makes peace and war, but his treaties must be ratified by the diet. He may dissolve the diet, but must convoke one again in ninety days.

The administration of justice must be public, and its discussions oral. The constitution recognizes in the people the rights of personal liberty—of conscience, of the press, of association, of petition, of emigration, and of labor.

Soon after this plan of a constitution was announced (May 4), the minister who had succeeded Prince Metternich resigned, and was succeeded by Count de Figuelmont, generally regarded as a high-toned aristocrat. On the 4th of May he also resigned, at the request of a deputation of the citizens.

The minister of the interior, de Pillersdorf, having dissolved the committee of the national guard, a popular tumult was the consequence. A mingled crowd of citizens and students demanded a revocation of the order that dissolved the committee; that the constitution should be so changed as to have but a single legislative chamber, or a different mode of forming the first or upper chamber; and also that the military should leave the city: all of which requests were granted on the same day.

They farther obtained the concession that the constitution of April 25th should be submitted to the deliberation of states, so that the constitution would be the work of a constituent assembly, chosen by the people, and not a mere charter granted by the sovereign.

In the evening of the 17th, the emperor, alarmed at these indications, left Vienna, under the appearance of driving to his palace at Schönbrunn; but the next day it was announced that he and his whole family had gone to Inspruck, in the Tyrol.

After his arrival at Inspruck, he published a proclamation, in which he stated that, reduced to the alternative of shedding the blood of his people, or of leaving Vienna, he had preferred the latter. He pro-

mised to confirm his concessions in March—pretermittting those of the 15th of May—and offered to return to Vienna when satisfied that it had returned to order and tranquillity.

He also ordered the disbanding of the academic legion, which caused another popular tumult on the 26th and 27th of May, when Vienna again saw barricades erected in her streets. The people were appeased by the promise of the ministers to appoint a committee of safety of at least 100 members. It was appointed, and consisted of citizens, national guards, and students, who forthwith decided on the demolition of the barricades. They required six batteries of artillery, to be served by the citizens and national guards, and that the garrison should be reduced, and all the posts occupied by the national guard. The minister, Pillersdorf, who is thought to favor liberal principles, then decided on convoking the constituent assembly on the 26th of June, and published two ordinances of a popular character, with the emperor's signature. The emperor, on the 3d of June, consented to the convocation of the constituent assembly at Vienna, which he would open in person, provided order was then established, and the deputies from the provinces could obtain security for their free deliberations. Since that the committee of safety has, against the advice of the minister, instituted an inquiry into the authors of the scheme of disbanding the academic legion, by a vote of 97 to 32. It gives some index of the state of feeling in Vienna, that, at a banquet, about the same time, of students and national guards, the Marseilles hymn was played by the orchestra, and received by the guests with great applause. Even in Tyrol, attached as it is to the Austrian dynasty, the people are thought to be favorably inclined to the liberal sentiments so prevalent with their German brethren.

While the emperor thus saw his power in his hereditary dominions reduced within limits scarcely compatible with its permanence, his distant provinces but added to his perplexities; and the proud fabric which the house of Hapsburg had been so long rearing, by feats of arms or diplomacy, seemed to be fast falling to pieces. Lombardy and Venice, intensely hating Austrian rule, had been, from the beginning of the year, in open revolt; and, with the aid of nearly all the Italian states, they were likely to succeed, in spite of his military power, lessened as it was by civil discord. In his Sclavonian provinces, hostility to the Germans, which the short-sighted policy of Metternich had fomented, induced them to aim at a political separation from Austria, with princes or regencies of their own. In May, an assembly of all the Sclavonian provinces was to meet at Prague. It accordingly assembled on the 2d of June. The members of this congress declared that the Austrian empire ought to be Sclavonian, most of its people being of that race. They profess liberal sentiments, and insist on separate legislatures for the Scla-

vonian nations (*peuples*); and while they proclaim sympathy for the cause of German liberty, they deny the authority of the constituent assembly at Frankfort to bind nations which neither were, nor wished to be, Germans.

Similar sentiments prevailed in Hungary, in Servia, and Croatia. If the affinities of race have often caused the separation of the emperor's subjects inhabiting the same province, they have also, of late, united different provinces. Thus, Transylvania has formed a union with Hungary; and Wallachia and Moldavia wish to follow her example.

The spirit of revolution has so far prevailed in the Danube principalities, that the people of Wallachia have expelled the prince and established a Provisional Government. The Russian forces have entered Passy for the purpose of sustaining the Prince of Moldavia, and it is confidently stated that they will march to Bucharest also.*

The Croats, who were in open revolt, invited the states of Bohemia to meet the diets of Dalmatia, Slavonia, and Croatia, at Agram, to shake off the yoke of the Germans. With these animosities of race, which, in some instances, have led to sanguinary conflicts, and have lately (June 17) laid Prague in ruins, it would seem next to impossible for the emperor, supposing his former power in Germany to be regained, to reconstruct one integral empire.

It should be remarked that the alienation of the Slavonian race from the Germans does not seem to have extended to the emperor, as the capitals both of Bohemia and Hungary, Prague and Pesth, have severally urged him to make those cities his residence.

The diet or assembly which met at Frankfort on the 22d of May, to form a federal constitution for all Germany, has been quietly and steadily prosecuting its labors. Seventeen men, selected for their wisdom and ability, were employed in preparing the constitution. One of their first acts was to declare that all the constitutions of Germany which did not accord with the fundamental principles decreed by the Assembly of Frankfort should be null and void.

It also declares that those individuals who reside in Germany, but who are not Germans, shall share in all the rights which the general constitution of Germany shall guarantee to the nation.

On the 3d of June it appointed a committee of fifteen to examine the propositions for the establishment of a central power.

The plan since said to be adopted is substantially as follows:—

The supreme central power for Germany is vested in a directory, to consist of three persons, appointed by the different governments of the confederation, on the nomination of a committee of the assembly, and to be finally approved by the assembly. Austria and Prus-

* The latest accounts state that the Turks have entered Wallachia, and that the Provisional Government has fled.

sia are each to select one director, and the third to be elected by a majority of the other states, from three persons furnished by Bavaria.

The directory are to execute the resolutions passed by the assembly; to issue ordinances required for the execution of the laws of the empire; to direct the national defence, and to appoint the commander-in-chief of the federal forces; to provide for the diplomatic relations, by appointing agents and consuls. In all cases of peace or war, or of treaties, the directory shall act in concert with the assembly. The directory shall exercise its powers by means of ministers, whom it shall appoint, and who will be responsible to the assembly. Its ordinances, to have validity, must be countersigned by one responsible minister at least. In conformity with these provisions, the directory shall appoint the six ministers of foreign affairs—of war and the marine—of the interior—of the finances—of agriculture, commerce, and public works.

On the 15th of June the assembly declared that the recent claim of Schleswig, being a German concern, is within its sphere of action; and that, in the event of peace with Denmark, the assembly would protect the rights of Schleswig and the honor of Germany.

This declaration has furnished a pretext to Prussia to evade the mediation of England and Russia.

The Assembly has recently elected Archduke John, of Austria, Vicar General of the German empire. This is the first practical step towards German unity. The archduke is the uncle of the present emperor of Austria, is liberal in politics, and a thoroughly practical man. He is the emperor's representative at Vienna, and has been received by the people of that city with great enthusiasm. The King of Prussia has written to him, congratulating him on being appointed head of the German confederation. On the 12th of July the diet assembled to meet the archduke. After being received with due ceremony, the law on the provisional centre power was read; and, on being asked to keep the law, the prince replied:—

“GENTLEMEN:—The haste with which I have come among you proves the sense I entertain of the dignity of the office of Vicar of the Empire, which has been conferred upon me; and also of the confidence reposed in me by the representatives of the German people. In taking upon me the functions of Vicar of the Empire, I declare once more I will obey, and cause to be obeyed, the law which has now been read to me. I declare, in addition, that I will devote myself exclusively to the discharge of the duties of this office, and will request the emperor to relieve me from the charge of acting as his substitute, immediately after the opening of the diet at Vienna, on which occasion I have promised to act for him.”

Then, turning to the President, he added:—“When a man has

taken up a cause, he ought to stand by it. My cause is that of Germany!" The archduke then withdrew, amidst the cheers of the assembly.

The army of the German confederation is to be increased to 800,000 men.

The constitutions now or recently under consideration for confederated Germany, as well as for Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, and other German states, are likely to have more or less vitality and efficiency according to the greater or less success of the republican experiment they are now making in France.

ITALY.

Nearly the whole of this peninsula has been the theatre of war or popular commotion during the present year. Popular disturbances manifested themselves in February; and it is alleged that they were fomented, if not provoked, by the Austrian government, that it might have a pretext for awing the people into yet more abject submission. The struggle becoming serious in March, the Austrians were driven out of Milan on the 22d of that month. The people of Lombardy and Venice, hoping for aid from republican France, determined on making an effort to throw off the detested yoke of Austria. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia and Piedmont, thought this dispute presented too favorable an opportunity for his aggrandizement to be neglected, and at once determined to take sides with Lombardy, without regard to his previous engagements with Austria. But, as the people of Venice seemed then bent upon a republic, he made this a plea for not following the Austrians into the Venetian territory, for the purpose of enhancing the value of his services, and of furthering his ambitious views. Solicitations then came from all quarters to the king, not to abandon the cause of Italian independence; and some went so far as to declare openly in favor of a kingdom of northern Italy. These overtures were well received, and he resumed his attitude of war. The Grand Duke of Tuscany also sided with his neighbors; and even the King of Naples, though he had a rebellion at home, was forced to contribute his contingent to the common cause. The Italian forces were all placed under the command of the King of Sardinia.

The Austrian army in Italy was then supposed to be 35,000 men, exclusive of garrisons, under the command of Field Marshal Redetsky. After some trifling successes, the Austrians were attacked by the Piedmontese army, on the 30th of April, at Partrengo, and, according to the Italian accounts, were worsted. On the 6th of May the battle of Verona was fought; and here the Austrians were victorious, though their force, as they say, was less than half of that of the enemy. They admit their loss to have been considerable. But,

after some small successes on the part of the Austrians, the Piedmontese army, commanded by Charles Albert in person, gained a victory at Goito; and on the same day Pischiery, a strong fortress on the Lago di Garda, capitulated, after a siege of some weeks. These victories were supposed to be decisive of the contest. In the battle of Goito the Piedmontese army was said to be but 20,000, while that of the Austrians was 30,000.

The articles of union between Lombardy and Piedmont were signed on the 10th of June. The people of Lombardy were in favor of immediate union, by 561,000 votes against 631 for deferring it. The provisional government of Milan, in announcing this fact, state that Lombardy, in consenting to the union, also decides on the call of a general constituent assembly, to settle the principles of their constitutional monarchy. The small states of Modena, Parma, and Placentia, had previously annexed themselves to Piedmont. But Venice, strongly inclined to a republican government, as yet keeps aloof. She may be eventually reduced to the alternative of choosing between the dominion of Austria and of Charles Albert.*

Great Britain has offered her mediation between Austria and the Italian states; and the liberation of the latter from a foreign yoke that was probably oppressive, and was certainly odious, is expected to be at hand.

The pope fell into a temporary unpopularity, from his unwillingness to take part in the war against Austria; but he finally yielded to the clamors of his people on the 1st of May, and thus reinstated himself in their affections and confidence. He had lately consented to separate the temporal from the spiritual authority in his dominions; but it is said he has retracted, or is disposed to retract. In a late letter to the Emperor of Austria, the pontiff earnestly beseeches his majesty to put an end to a war which he pronounces hopeless; and he trusts that "the generous German nation will not take it in ill part that he invites it to lay aside its hatred, and to exchange for the relations of good neighborhood a dominion that can be neither noble nor prosperous so long as it is maintained only by the sword."

The people of Sicily had long complained that they had a much larger share of the burdens of government, and a much smaller one of its favor and bounty, than their fellow subjects on the continent; and, their complaints being unheeded, an insurrection broke out in Messina. The troops sent there to quell it were overpowered, and, the people generally supporting the insurgents, the whole island soon came into their possession. They appointed a provisional government, and insisted on being separated from Naples.

The differences between the king and the people of Sicily seemed

* See Quarterly Chronicle. Charles Albert has recently been defeated in battle.

then about to be adjusted, and a parliament for that purpose was convoked to meet at Palermo on the 25th of March; but the breach gradually becoming wider, and the king having rendered himself peculiarly odious by the bombardment of the city of Messina, that parliament, on the 13th April, severed the connection between them by the following decree:—

“Art. 1. Ferdinand de Bourbon and his dynasty have forever forfeited their right to the throne of Sicily.

“Art. 2. Sicily shall be ruled by a constitutional government. After reforming her constitution, she will call to the throne an Italian prince.”

After this decree Messina was again bombarded. There was a republican party in Sicily, but it was small in number, and without efficient leaders.

According to the *project* of their reformed constitution, their government seems, in its main features, to resemble that of England.

The sovereignty of the nation is vested in three distinct powers—legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative power resides exclusively in the parliament.

The parliament consists of two chambers: one of peers, of 120 members, and the other of representatives of the commons.

A few of the peers are such by right of their offices as archbishops; the rest, amounting to 100, are elected by the nation, and hold their places for twelve years. They cannot vote by proxy.

The parliament is to meet annually at Palermo. The king may convoke them on extraordinary occasions, and may dissolve them, but he must again convoke them within six months.

It was not long before the Neapolitans followed their example. An insurrection broke out in Naples on the 17th of May, but the royal troops, with the aid of the *lazaroni*, put it down; and the latter were rewarded for their fidelity, it is said, by leave to pillage and massacre. The Calabrians have also revolted, with better success; and unless Ferdinand, who has obtained the sobriquet of *Il Bombardatore* (The Bombarder), receives foreign aid, he may soon have no more authority in Naples than he now has in Sicily.

By the latest accounts we learn that the Duke of Genoa, son of the King of Sardinia, has been chosen King of Sicily. The King of Naples has publicly protested against it, and is preparing an armament to make a descent upon the island. Thus the war may be renewed and more blood be shed to sustain the cause of popular liberty in Italy.

This beautiful country, so gifted by nature in soil, climate, and facilities for commerce, and which has, at different times, been among the first on the globe in letters, arts, and arms, may, under the genial influence of liberty, again aspire to national greatness. It will have done something in expelling the Austrians, but more

remains to be done to effect a union; and if the people expect political regeneration, they must trust more to their own efforts than to the auspices of Ferdinand of Naples, or even Charles Albert of Sardinia.

RUSSIA.

This vast empire has been less affected by the late revolution in France than any part of Europe. That event, which swept away so much of monarchical power, and shaken what it has not swept away, has had no more effect on the authority of the emperor, or the tranquillity of his sixty or seventy millions of submissive subjects than is produced by a storm on one of our vast western prairies, or the solitary mountain which may chance to rear its head in the midst of it.

Yet we must not suppose that Nicholas, content with this security, was an indifferent spectator of what was passing in Western Europe. If the Russian policy of further aggrandizement never slept in times of settled quiet, it was likely to be quickened into new life by commotions which weakened the powers most able to resist it, and though he did not fear the democratic spirit, he cordially hated it. He accordingly soon began to make immense military preparations, though without any specific object, or none that the world knew of; and, by the last accounts, he had an army of upwards of 800,000 men.

The gigantic power wielded by the emperor is always watched with interest, if not apprehension, by the other potentates of Europe; and, it is said, already to have been felt. When General Wrangel, by way of compelling Denmark to release her ships, and, perhaps, to raise her blockades, invaded Jutland, a note from Russia was sufficient to cause the Prussian general to withdraw his troops. If her interposition has not yet brought about a pacification between these belligerents, it does not follow that affairs are not even now in that train; and it is something to have so far overcome the jealousy she has hitherto encountered on the Baltic, as to be the protector of the nation which holds the keys of that important sea.

The emperor, through his representative in Greece, signified to the restless spirits there, that her political existence is inseparably united with monarchy; and that on the establishment of a republic in Greece, she must return to her former state of dependence. The fiat of Russia has here, too, produced its intended effect.

When the French revolution first broke out, it was thought by some that Russia would restore the kingdom of Poland, so as to make it the barrier against French principles, rather than risk its becoming the van-guard of Europe against herself. But it is more accordant with her settled policy to incorporate Poland with Russia

and reduce her to complete subjection, than to fear her active hostility or to desire her aid as an independent nation. Her views with regard to all Poland will soon be developed. She has now an army of above 200,000 men on the borders of Poland, and the domestic troubles of Austria and Prussia may tempt her to wrest from them Galicia and Posen, especially if the Poles themselves should be induced to co-operate. Hating all those who conspired to blot the name of their country out of the map of Europe, they may nevertheless feel somewhat less hatred for Russia than for Prussia and Austria.

The disposition manifested by Moldavia and Wallachia to unite with Hungary and the Austrian empire, excited the umbrage of Russia, and affords her a pretext for breaking with Austria. She threatens to invade those provinces, in which case, if the occasion is favorable, she may extend her conquests.

The rest of Europe requires at present but a short notice. Spain and Portugal both exhibit signs of restlessness and disquiet; but with this difference: The disturbances in Portugal seem to grow out of the feuds and bickerings of rival parties at court struggling for power and office; whilst those in Spain are conflicts between the people and the government. There have been several small insurrections in that kingdom in the course of the present year; and whether they were justifiable or not, they afford presumptive evidence of misrule, either by the injustice or oppression which provokes them, or the imbecility which fails to repress them. It is even said that systematic remonstrances and demands by the people, similar to those of the chartists in England, are now going on in Spain.

In Switzerland, the animosities growing out of the *Sonderbond* have been suspended by the absorbing political agitations around them. Of the two sources of the civil discord which exists in the Swiss confederacy, that between the more democratic portion of the people and the government in the aristocratic cantons, may, in the present times, have more serious effects than that between the different cantons on account of religion.

Belgium and Holland are both steadily pursuing the arts of industry and commerce. They have been too well sated with revolutions under French guidance to venture again on that experiment. In whatsoever of political reform they attempt—and doubtless they want some, or think they want it—they will prefer the slow and sure course of the track-schuyt to the more rapid and perilous one of the steam-car.

Sweden is as quiet as the last mentioned countries, and if the condition of her people is, from the difference in physical circumstances, inferior to theirs, they are equally contented. Sweden has not yet forgotten the lesson, taught her by Charles XII., of the ruinous cost at which she must purchase military glory; but her prudence will not prevent her from supporting the rightful cause of Denmark—her commercial rival.

These four countries are among the most populous in Europe, according to their several circumstances—not excepting Ireland; and while they all verify Malthus's main doctrine that population will increase until it reaches the limit of the means of subsistence, they also show that he has somewhat overrated the effect of density of numbers, both in increasing misery and in encouraging immorality. In no part of Europe are the people more moral or more contented than in Sweden, Denmark, Holland and Belgium.

We have brought down our history to the month of August, embracing the half year of 1848. For the want of space, we have postponed a notice of Asia and Africa until the next number. Indeed the latter has afforded scarcely any materials for history within the past six months; and in the former, the late insurrection of the Sikhs, and a collision between the English and Chinese at Canton, are the principal events worth recording.

↪ In the quarterly chronicle will be found some incidents of a later date, to which we refer our readers.

STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE LAKES AND WESTERN RIVERS.

[We extract from the last report of the Bureau of Topographical Engineers, made in 1848 in compliance with a resolution of the Senate, the following interesting statements:]

1. COMMERCE OF THE LAKES.

The absence of any established system of statistics in reference to our internal commerce, will, until so serious a defect in our national policy be adequately remedied, render it extremely difficult to answer questions of this kind with the precision due to their intrinsic importance, and to their eminent influence upon the prosperity of the nation. The internal commerce of all nations vastly exceeds their external, and is a more infallible measure of their strength. It is only from a knowledge of this commerce, which is a knowledge of the products of all kinds of a country, and of the interchange of these products, that the capacity of a country can be properly estimated; its ability to sustain itself in seasons of adversity, and to lend a helping hand to others. And it is, also, from a knowledge of these products, that a sound judgment can be formed of those national interests which may require some adventitious aid, and of those which ably sustain themselves. Or, in our intercourse with other nations, that the statesman can decide upon the position which his country can take, from a correct knowledge of her own resources, and of her own consequent independence. A nation may be obliged to endure a wrong, or be able to resent it, according to the condition of her internal resources; for on the strength of these her ability to resist chiefly depends. The productive industry of a nation may be considered as measured by its internal and external trade and commerce, and the external trade and commerce may be considered as the measure of national profit; as the external commerce of a nation consists of those national products which are not wanted at home, or which can be conveniently spared. Each react upon the other, giving life and strength to both; a correct knowledge of each is therefore of the greatest importance in obtaining a correct knowledge of the whole. Our revenue system gives us an exact knowledge of that portion of our productive industry which forms our foreign commerce; but the system has not been extended so as to obtain a knowledge of our internal trade and commerce. This immense amount of national resources, and this vast measure of national strength, has, as yet, been left,—that is, a correct knowledge of it,—to individual efforts, and to accidental investigation; or, in other words, it is yet in want of some established system by which its details can be collected with the same reliable accuracy as those of our foreign commerce. Considering how essential this knowledge is to the forming of sound opinions of the fiscal or military power of a people, we think it will be readily admitted, that a system, by which this knowledge shall be obtained, cannot be too carefully established, or too highly cherished.

In a report from this bureau of November 1843, returns were submitted of the lake commerce from 1835 to 1841. These returns were necessarily imperfect, because of the absence of any system by which statistics of this kind could be collected. Yet, by dint of great labor, and of numerous circulars to intelligent individuals who had given much attention to the matter, I was enabled to submit the returns of that report, exhibiting kinds and quantities, and the moneyed value of exports and imports.

Referring to these returns, it will be found that the moneyed value was—

Of imports	-	-	-	-	\$33,483,441 00
Of exports	-	-	-	-	32,342,541 00

Making a total in 1841, of - - 65,826,022 00

as the floating value of the Lake commerce.

By reference to the official reports of the Treasury Department, the enrolled and licensed lake tonnage for the year 1841, was 56,252 tons; and the number of mariners then employed, 3,750.

When the resolution of the Senate, upon which this report is made, was received, circulars were written in the hope of obtaining a regular series of returns from 1841 to 1846, inclusive; but, when it is understood that the greater part of the information of these returns has to be obtained from the books of mercantile houses, it will readily be perceived that the investigation was attended with serious difficulties, and with great uncertainty. No regular series of returns could be obtained, but from the information received, I am enabled to present the following table of the moneyed value of exports and imports for the year 1846.

Consolidated Return of Exports and Imports of the Lake Harbors for the year 1846.

Oswegatchie (district)	-	-	-	\$180,555 00
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CHAMPLAIN.

Whitehall	-	-	-	6,327,489 00
Plattsburg (district)	-	-	-	1,160,844 00
Burlington (district)	-	-	-	3,777,726 00

ONTARIO.

Sackett's Harbor (district)	-	-	-	2,735,091 00
Dexter (port)	-	-	-	484,575 00
Salmon River, or Port Ontario	-	-	-	423,724 00
Oswego	-	-	-	9,502,980 00
Big Sodus	-	-	-	39,206 00
Rochester	-	-	-	212,926 00
Pultneyville	-	-	-	20,342 00
Niagara (district)	-	-	-	606,863 00

ERIE.

Black Rock	-	-	-	not known.
Buffalo (port)	-	-	-	48,989,116 00
Silver Creek	-	-	-	not known.
Irving	-	-	-	not known.
Portland	-	-	-	not known.
Conneaut (port)	-	-	-	380,475 00
Ashtabula (port)	-	-	-	715,467 00
Fairport (Grand River)	-	-	-	819,584 00
Cleveland (port)	-	-	-	12,559,110 00
Huron	-	-	-	not known.
Sandusky (district)	-	-	-	5,943,127 00
Monroe (district), including Toledo	-	-	-	9,519,067 00
Detroit	-	-	-	8,706,348 00
Erie	-	-	-	6,373,246 00
Dunkirk	-	-	-	not known.
Black River (port)	-	-	-	215,040 00
Vermillion (port)	-	-	-	137,770 00

MICHIGAN.					
Chicago	-	-	-	-	3,927,150 00
St. Joseph	-	-	-	-	not known.
Grand River	-	-	-	-	not known.
Kalamazoo	-	-	-	-	not known.
New Buffalo	-	-	-	-	not known.
Michigan City	-	-	-	-	not known.
Mouth of Calumie	-	-	-	-	not known.
Little Fort	-	-	-	-	not known.
Southport	-	-	-	-	not known.
Racine	-	-	-	-	not known.
Milwaukie	-	-	-	-	not known.
Sheboygan	-	-	-	-	not known.
Manitowoc	-	-	-	-	not known.
					\$123,829,821 00

There are several places of notoriety on the lakes enumerated in the above statement, but of which the exports and imports for 1846 are not known, because no returns have been received from them, or because the returns which have been received were too defective to be used. The foregoing amount may, therefore, be considered as below the true representation of the entire American lake commerce, and may be taken with safety as not an exaggerated value of that commerce. But there can be no doubt that the total exports and imports of these lakes, as represented in the above table, is a duplicate commerce—the exports of one place being the imports of another; it must not, however, be supposed as including a mere carrying trade, but as exports fairly shipped at a place, and as imports unloaded, and not being again involved as part of the Lake commerce. Applying these considerations to the amount of commerce above stated, they will justify the assumption of half that amount as the net moneyed value of the Lake commerce; or, in other words, that the net value of this commerce is, for the year 1846, \$61,914,910. The same reasoning applied to the commerce of 1841 will make it, for that year, \$32,913,011; showing the Lake commerce to have nearly doubled itself in five years, and to have experienced an annual average increase of 17.62 per cent.

EXTENT OF LAKE COAST.

The great lakes of our country, which may justly be considered inland seas, and to which the inland commerce described in this report relates, are the following: Champlain, Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, Michigan, Superior. These lakes are of great depth, as well as of great extent. The entire line of lake coast embraces about 5,000 miles, 2,000 miles of which constitute the coast of a foreign power.

Lake Champlain is	-	-	-	-	105 miles long.
Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	12 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	8 miles.
Lake Ontario is	-	-	-	-	180 miles long.
Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	52 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	40 miles.
Lake Erie is	-	-	-	-	240 miles long.
Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	57 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	38 miles.
Lake St. Clair is	-	-	-	-	18 miles long.

Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	25 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	12 miles.
Lake Huron is	-	-	-	-	270 miles long.
Its greatest width (not including the extensive bay of Georgian, itself 120 miles long, and averaging 45 wide) is	-	-	-	-	105 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	70 miles.
Lake Michigan is	-	-	-	-	340 miles long.
Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	83 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	58 miles.
Lake Superior is	-	-	-	-	420 miles long.
Its greatest width	-	-	-	-	135 miles.
Its average width	-	-	-	-	100 miles.

These lakes may be considered as connected throughout their whole extent. Lake Champlain connects with Lake Ontario by means of the river Richelieu; the lock and dam navigation of St. Lawrence river; the Ottawa river; the Rideau canal through Canada; and the Champlain and Erie canals of New York. Lake Ontario is connected with Lake Erie by means of the Welland canal through Canada, and by means of the Oswego and Erie canals, through the State of New York. Lake Erie is connected with Lake St. Clair by the deep and navigable strait of Detroit, 25 miles long. Lake St. Clair is connected with Lake Huron by the deep and navigable strait of St. Clair, 32 miles long. Lake Huron is connected with Lake Michigan by the deep and wide strait of Mackinaw, and with Lake Superior by the strait of St. Mary's, 46 miles long. This strait is navigable throughout except for about one mile of its length, immediately adjacent to Lake Superior, where, from rocks and the extreme rapidity of the current, navigation ceases. These difficulties can, however, be easily surmounted by a canal of not more than a mile long, with locks to overcome a fall of about 21 feet. This obstruction is to be removed. Congress has recently passed a bill granting a portion of the public lands for the construction of a ship canal around the Saut Ste. Marie.

The only additional hinderance to this immense extent of inland navigation is a bar in Lake St. Clair—but the bottom is hard and if a channel is once dredged through, it will become a durable improvement.

2. THE COMMERCE OF THE WESTERN RIVERS.

To determine the probable moneyed value of this commerce, we have no direct data, but have to resort to inference and comparison. It is well known that a great portion of the produce of the west is of a much greater value per ton than that of the lakes. But if to obtain its value, it be assumed as of no greater value per ton than the commerce of the lakes, we shall clearly show, we think, the absence of all efforts to exaggerate.

The total tonnage transported on the lakes has been shown to be 3,861,088 tons; but this is a duplicate quantity. It exhibits the total amount of exports and imports at all places, and is, therefore, in all probability an exhibit of double the real amount of tons of merchandise. Assuming this supposition as correct, the net amount of tons of lake goods transported is 1,930,544; and as it has been shown that the net value of these goods is \$61,914,910, we have for the net value per ton \$32 07.

It has also been shown that the net tons of merchandise of the western rivers, with New Orleans, exclusive of way trade, was for 1842, 1,862,780 tons. Now, if we apply to this amount the value of lake commerce, per ton as just given, we shall have for the direct commerce of the western rivers, with New Orleans, an amount of \$59,739,354.

New Orleans being the point at which this commerce is concentrated, the returns of that place would merely duplicate the commerce; they have, therefore, not been used. But these returns would, also, from the same reason, be highly corroborative evidence of the amount.

Referring to the official returns of the amount of exports and imports of New Orleans for the year 1842, we find them to be \$50,566,903, a sufficiently adequate coincidence with the river trade, as just given, to sustain the probable accuracy of the suppositions which have been adopted in reference to that trade, and to justify the amount of exports and imports of New Orleans in being taken as an exhibit of the commerce of the western rivers with that city.

For 1842, then, this commerce can be stated at - - - - - \$50,566,903
 In 1846, a statement from the Treasury Department makes it - - 62,206,719

Showing an increase in four years of - - - - - \$11,639,816
 or, an average annual increase of 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

We have, as yet, spoken only of the direct river commerce, and not of the indirect or way commerce, of that immense amount of commodities which is interchanged between city and city, town and town, place and place, on the western rivers, and which forms no part of the New Orleans commerce, but which may be appropriately designated as the coasting commerce of the western rivers.

“The shores of the Mississippi,” says the Cincinnati memorial, “on both sides, from the mouth of the Ohio downwards, receives supplies of live stock, provisions, machinery, farming implements, cabinet ware, and a great variety of fabrics from the more northern States of the great valley.”

“A still more important addition is the trade which passes from town to town, and from State to State, throughout the west, and which is independent of what are termed exports and imports. It is difficult to form any adequate idea of this trade, but we, who see it going forward, and witness the gigantic means required to keep it in operation, know that it forms a large item in the estimate of our trade and industry.” Then, after enumerating the items and the trade of places upon which its judgment is founded, the memorial adopts the conclusion that the aggregate of this way trade, or interchange of commodities, is “seventy millions” in addition “to the fifty millions exported through New Orleans.”

Upon the authority of the Cincinnati memorial, we shall, therefore, adopt for the way commerce for the year 1842, the amount of \$70,000,000.

To bring this amount up to 1846, we will apply to it the same average rate of increase, 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., which the direct river commerce has been found to experience, and the result will be (for 1846) \$86,100,000.

From the foregoing exposition, then, the total commerce in merchandise of all kinds, of the western rivers, can be stated for the year 1846 at (net value) \$148,306,719.

This amount should be strictly understood as indicating the net value; the floating value cannot be less than double this amount, (the exports of one place being the imports of another,) or equal to \$296,613,438 for the year 1846.

STEAM NAVIGATION ON THE WESTERN RIVERS.

The natural facilities of a country are in its water-courses; the artificial are in its improved water-courses, its roads and canals. These artificial facilities add also to the development of the resources of a country, by the addition they make to the useful period of human life. There can be no doubt that the rapid interchange of place which steamboats and railroads occasion, from the saving of time, which would otherwise be expended and wasted in traveling, gains in the average to the life of a business man of sixty, five years of his existence, and

enables him to devote that much more time to his occupation. These causes cannot fail greatly to increase and rapidly to develop the resources of a people with whom they exist. The proportion in which they act upon these resources must be left to the development of future statistics.

The Mississippi river is the great natural drain of the immense valley which bears its name. The length of this river now navigable for steamboats, with but partial impediments, may be considered as extending from its mouth to the Falls of St. Anthony—a distance of about 2,000 miles.

Assuming the Mississippi as the great central drain, other rivers will be spoken of as tributaries. And taking the western bank, we have—

1st. *The Red River*—a fine, navigable stream, with some obstructions, however, which pushes its head waters near to the Rio Grande, and is represented, upon good authority, to have two feet of water as high up as old Fort Wachita, a distance of 1,500 miles, by the river route, from its junction with the Mississippi. It is now used in the steamboat transportation of government supplies, for 1,000 miles, by the river, to Fort Towson.

2d. *The Arkansas*—with a steamboat navigation of 600 miles. Both the Red river and the Arkansas have important tributaries, extending far into the country, and furnishing good flatboat navigation.

3d. *The Missouri*—with a periodical steamboat navigation of about 1,800 miles, and several important tributaries, furnishing good flatboat navigation. From thence to the head navigable waters of the Mississippi, there are several fine tributaries, adapted to steamboat and to flat and keel boat navigation.

Now, proceeding down the Mississippi on its eastern bank, there are many fine rivers, furnishing good and extensive flat and keel boat navigation for many miles; but the first river on that bank, proceeding downwards, which can be considered as a steamboat river, is the Illinois. It enters the Mississippi about 40 miles above St. Louis, and has a good steamboat navigation, for four months of the year, from its mouth to the La Salle—a distance of 212 miles—where it is united to the Illinois and Michigan canal, and forms the connecting link of navigation between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan.

The next steamboat river is the Ohio, which has good steamboat navigation from its mouth to Pittsburgh, a distance of 1,000 miles.

This river has many important tributaries; the Tennessee, the Cumberland, Green river, Kentucky river, Kenhaway, the Alleghany, Monongahela, Beaver, Muskingum, Scioto, Miami, Wabash, and others of less notoriety, but furnishing, to some extent, good steamboat navigation.

The whole steamboat navigation of the Mississippi and its tributaries can be stated at 16,674 miles, as will be seen from the following table, furnished by Lieutenant-Colonel S. H. Long, of the corps of topographical engineers.

Probable extent of steam navigation on the western waters, including the rivers, bayous, &c., connected with the Mississippi by channels navigable for steamers.

MISSISSIPPI AND ITS BRANCHES, BAYOUS, &c.								
Mississippi proper	-	-	2,000 miles.	Spring	-	-	-	50 miles.
St. Croix	-	-	80	Arkansas	-	-	-	600
St. Peter's	-	-	120	Canadian	-	-	-	60
Chippeway	-	-	70	Neosho	-	-	-	60
Black	-	-	60	Yazoo	-	-	-	300
Wisconsin	-	-	180	Tallahatchee	-	-	-	300
Rock	-	-	250	Yalabusha	-	-	-	130
Iowa	-	-	110	Big Sunflower	-	-	-	80
Cedar	-	-	60	Little Sunflower	-	-	-	70
Des Moines	-	-	250	Big Black	-	-	-	150
Illinois	-	-	245	Bayou De Glaze	-	-	-	90
Maremece	-	-	60	Bayou Clare	-	-	-	140

Kaskaskia - - -	150 miles.	Bayou Rouge - -	40 miles.
Big Muddy - - -	5 "	Bayou La Fourche -	60 "
Obion - - -	60 "	Bayou Plaquemine -	12 "
Forked Deer - -	195 "	Bayou Teche - - -	96 "
Big Hatchee - -	75 "	Grand river - - -	12 "
St. Francis - - -	300 "	Bayou Sorrele - - -	12 "
White - - -	500 "	Bayou Chien - - -	5 "
Big Black - - -	60 "		

MISSOURI AND BRANCHES.

Missouri proper - -	1,800 miles.	Kansas - - -	150 "
Yellow Stone - - -	300 "	Osage - - -	275 "
Platte River - - -	40 "	Grand - - -	90 "

OHIO AND BRANCHES.

Ohio proper - - -	1,000 miles.	Kentucky - - -	62 "
Alleghany - - -	200 "	Salt river - - -	35 "
Monongahela - - -	60 "	Green - - -	150 "
Muskingum - - -	70 "	Barren - - -	30 "
Kenhawa - - -	65 "	Wabash - - -	400 "
Big Sandy - - -	50 "	Cumberland - - -	400 "
Scioto - - -	50 "	Tennessee - - -	720 "

RED RIVER AND ITS BRANCHES, BAYOUS, &c.

Red river proper - -	1,500 miles.	Tensas river - - -	150 "
Wachita - - -	375 "	Lake Bistenaw - - -	60 "
Saline - - -	100 "	Lake Caddo - - -	75 "
Little Missouri - -	50 "	Sulphur Fork - - -	100 "
Bayou De Arbonne -	60 "	Little river - - -	65 "
Bayou Bartholomew -	150 "	Kiamichi - - -	40 "
Bayou Bœuf - - -	150 "	Boggy - - -	40 "
Bayou Macon - - -	175 "	Bayou Pierre - - -	150 "
Bayou Louis - - -	30 "	Atchafalaya - - -	360 "

16,674 "

LAKE IMPORTS AT BUFFALO FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

(From Burke's Report.)

The principal articles received at this point, via the lake, from the opening to the close of navigation for the past five years, were as follows:

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Flour, barrels - - -	917,621	915,100	746,750	1,375,500	1,857,000
Pork - - - - -	41,984	51,482	28,930	40,200	42,000
Beef - - - - -	25,342	28,450	28,130	28,252	38,900
Seed - - - - -	12,246	15,476	13,840	17,640	22,536
Ashes - - - - -	29,940	29,332	32,900	24,612	7,338
Whisky - - - - -	8,719	6,315	11,750	15,031	18,100
Cranberries - - -	3,281	3,338	4,220	2,150	3,147
Fish - - - - -	2,857	2,792	3,755	6,498	3,943
Tallow - - - - -	2,387	2,570	2,565	4,045	3,015
Hams and bacon, casks	4,814	6,170	2,925	3,800	2,100
Hides - - - - -	32,447	29,080	43,590	50,620	64,280

LAKE IMPORTS.—Continued.

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Hemp, bales - - -	865	235	2,620	26,021	1,062
Tobacco, hogsheads -	2,097	262	702	3,022	1,114
Lead, pigs - - -	27,753	6,276	14,810	25,960	16,748
Staves, M - - -	4,522	6,543	8,573	10,762,500	8,800,000
Wheat, bushels - -	1,827,241	2,177,500	1,770,740	4,745,000	6,489,100
Corn - - - - -	223,963	137,978	54,200	1,445,308	2,862,300
Oats - - - - -	2,489	18,017	23,100	290,000	446,000
Rye - - - - -	1,332	1,617	1,170	28,250	70,787
Butter, kegs - - -	17,402	17,427	19,975	70,198	101,584
Lard - - - - -	10,464	8,223	15,220	6,100,000	3,436,000
Lard, barrels - - -	14,125	8,553	16,185	21,100	29,223
Wool, bales - - -	4,516	12,340	7,200	25,480	30,840
Cheese, boxes - - -	9,863	13,206	20,667	5,415	6,450
Cheese, casks - - -	3,664	2,630	2,950	9,665	11,842
Brooms, dozen - - -	2,128	1,280	2,335	2,550	3,462
Furs and skins, pkgs.	2,343	2,560	3,560	4,120	5,640
Glass, boxes - - -	2,298	3,624	3,250	420	672
Shot, kegs - - - -	275	368	350	2,290	3,857
Pig iron, tons - - -	1,000	1,915	2,390	4,430	7,716
Coal - - - - -	1,000	1,524	3,936	1,142	1,542
Nails, kegs - - - -	478	852	1,232	1,020	1,256
Paper rags, bales - -	261	570	840	9,098	4,960
Leather, rolls - - -	308	1,763	5,268	781	2,685
Lard and other oils, bls.	1,316	1,663	1,140	611	842
Beeswax, packages -	282	420	780	3,120	4,100
Beans, barrels - - -	342	484	840	642	856
Ginseng, packages -	304	380	520	4,842	5,640
Starch, boxes - - -	104	3,283	3,194	643	892
Bundles - - - - -	101	432	246	1,970	2,856
Feathers, sacks - - -	1,153	1,416	2,778	1,864	3,200
Dried and other fruits, packages - - - -	735	920	1,242	6,480	6,900
Live hogs - - - - -	5,221	4,773	1,860	8,642	2,430
Bacon and hams, tierces	12,150	24,960	9,330	34,536	17,313
Lumber, M feet - - -			9,655		

FACILITIES OF COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE GREAT LAKES AND RIVERS AND THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

The following is a brief sketch of the principal connecting links of the routes of internal commerce, by Col. Albert.

They are divided into two classes: First, those which connect the lakes with the valley of the Mississippi; Second, those which connect the lakes with the Atlantic.

Of the first class—

1st. *The Illinois and Michigan Canal.*—This canal is 96½ miles long, 60 feet wide at the water surface, and six feet deep. Its locks, in number 17, are 110 feet long, by 18 feet wide, and the total amount of lockage 158 feet. It connects with the Chicago, which empties into Lake Michigan, within five miles of the lake, up to which point and above, 10 feet of water can be carried from

the lake. The other extremity of the canal is connected with the Illinois river at the town of La Salle, from whence that river has to be used to the Mississippi, through a distance of about 213 miles. Throughout the whole of this distance the Illinois is navigable for flat boats the year round, except during the ice season of winter, and with steamboats for about four months of each year, and partially with steamboats for about eight months.

There is a navigable feeder to this canal, 17 miles long, which enters the canal 20 miles west of Chicago. This feeder extends to the Kalymick river, at a point within 20 miles of the Indiana state line, and opens to the canal the trade of the Kalymick. The Kalymick empties into Lake Michigan, about 13 miles south of Chicago, and the point on the river at which the feeder is connected with it, is about six miles from the junction of the river with the lake. By these means a second communication is formed between the canal and the lake. The entrance of the Kalymick from the lake, is yet unimproved, but it is capable of being made an entrance for first class steamers. After entering the river, not less than 10 feet of water can be carried up to (and above) the point of junction with the feeder. There is, also, a second navigable feeder, 50 miles west of Chicago, five miles long, and connecting with the Kankakee river, by means of which great facilities are furnished to the trade of a large portion of Indiana, through which the Kankakee passes. These feeders are forty feet wide and four feet deep. The canal and its feeders are now in active progress of construction. It is confidently stated that the whole will be completed by January ensuing, and open for use next spring.

2d. *Wabash and Erie Canal.*—The Wabash river empties into the Ohio, about 130 miles above the junction of the latter with the Mississippi. The canal takes its origin at Lafayette, about 378 miles up the Wabash. It is 187 miles long, and is connected with the Maumee river at Toledo, immediately adjacent to Lake Erie. The distance from Lafayette to Toledo is completed and in use, and the plan now in contemplation is to extend the canal from Lafayette to the Ohio. About 75 miles westward from Toledo, upon the canal, at a place called Junction, a connection is formed with the Miami canal from Cincinnati. This canal is 180 miles long, 40 feet wide at water surface, and four feet deep, and the locks, 85 in number, are 90 feet long by 15 feet wide. I am not able to state the dimensions of the Miami canal, but of course they are not less than those of the Cincinnati branch.

I have stated that it was in contemplation to extend the canal from Lafayette, down the valley of the Wabash, to the Ohio. Already 88 miles of this extension, to the town of Terre Haute, is in progress, where a connection will be established between the canal and the river, and from which point, to the Ohio, the river will be used until the whole extension to the Ohio be completed. The Wabash and Erie canal has, therefore, two connections with the valley of the Mississippi by the medium of the Ohio; one by the way of the Wabash river, from Terre Haute to its mouth, and the other by way of the Cincinnati Branch canal, usually called the Miami canal.

The navigation of the Wabash river from Terre Haute down to the Ohio is good for flat boats during nine months, and for steamboats during about four months.

The length of the Muskingum improvement is 91 miles, including the extent above Zanesville, to accommodate which there is a lock 120 feet long and 22 feet wide. (But that part of the improvement, which constitutes the improvement between the Ohio and Lake Erie, is — miles long, in which there are 11 locks, 175 feet long by 36 feet wide.) The distance from the Ohio to Lake Erie, by this route, is 238 miles.

3d. *Sandy and Beaver Canal.*—This canal leaves the Ohio and Erie canal at Bolivar, 229 miles from Portsmouth and 80 miles from Cleveland, uniting with the Ohio 76 miles from Bolivar, at the mouth of Little Beaver, thence to Beaver, where it unites with the Beaver division of the Pennsylvania canal.

The distance from the Ohio to the lake, by this route, is 156 miles.

4th. *Mahoning Canal*.—This is rather a cross-cut canal, uniting the Ohio and Erie canal, at Akron, with the canal from the Big Beaver to Erie, above New Castle. It is 83 miles long, and furnishes the means of a second connection with Lake Erie (from the Ohio and Erie canal) at Erie.

From the foregoing, it will appear that there are the following points of connection by canal between the valley of the Mississippi and the lakes, namely— at Chicago and the mouth of the Kalamazoo on Lake Michigan; but, from the unimproved condition of the mouth of the Kalamazoo, this last is at present of no value; at Toledo and Cleveland, on Lake Erie, and by the Mahoning canal, with the harbor of Erie. To these may be added the further connection with Lake Ontario, by the Welland (Canada) canal, and with Lakes Ontario and Champlain by means of the New York canals; and that the points of union of these canal routes with the valley of the Mississippi are the following: Mouth of the Illinois river, on the Mississippi, 40 miles above St. Louis; mouth of the Wabash, on the Ohio, 130 miles from the Mississippi river; Cincinnati, on the Ohio, 550 miles from the Mississippi river; Portsmouth, on the Ohio, 589 miles from the Mississippi river; mouth of the Hocking, on the Ohio, 756 miles from the Mississippi river; at Marietta, on the Ohio, 783 miles from the Mississippi river; mouth of Little Beaver, on the Ohio, 924 miles from the Mississippi river.

There is also a canal now in use called the Beaver and Erie canal. It connects with the Ohio 28 miles below Pittsburgh. The canal is 136 miles long, 40 feet wide, four feet deep, with locks 90 feet by 15, and a lockage of 929½ feet. This canal connects with the lake at the harbor of Erie.

In addition to these facilities by canal, several railroads have been projected, some of which have been partially completed. The Michigan railroad from St. Joseph, on Lake Michigan, to Detroit—this road is 200 miles long, 156 miles of which are now in use; the Mad river and Lake Erie railroad, from Sandusky, on Lake Erie, to Dayton—this road will be — miles long, 91 miles are now in use, and 119 miles to Urbana are expected to be in use by next spring. The connection of this road with the little Miami road, at Springfield, will make a continuous railroad connection from Sandusky, on Lake Erie, to Cincinnati, on the Ohio. The Mansfield and Sandusky railroad—this road is to extend to Columbus, where it will be connected with the Ohio and Erie canal; the road as far as Mansfield, 59 miles, is completed.

Second class, or connections by means of canals and railroads between the lakes and the Atlantic.

1st. *The Great Canal from Buffalo, on Lake Erie, to Albany, on the Hudson River*.—This canal is 363 miles long, 40 feet wide at water surface, 28 feet wide at bottom, and four feet deep. It has 84 locks, 90 feet by 15, and a total lockage of 688 feet. The Erie enlargement modifies these dimensions of the canal to a width of 70 feet, and a depth of seven, and the locks to be 110 feet long by 18 feet wide. Aqueducts to be enlarged proportionally. This enlargement has already been extended over about 113 miles of canal length, 98 enlarged locks have been made, and 22 aqueducts with other works, such as culverts, bridges, waste weirs, &c. This is, undoubtedly, the existing line of water communication between the lakes and the Atlantic. There are several branches of this canal, of great importance, extending its lake connections. The branch from Syracuse to Oswego, on Lake Ontario. Syracuse is 170 miles west of Albany, and the length of this branch is 38 miles. The Black River canal from Rome, 125 miles west of Albany, to Carthage, on Black river, 30 miles above its entrance into Lake Ontario, at Sackett's Harbor. The canal and river navigation of this branch is 76 miles. The Champlain canal from the Erie canal, nine miles north of Albany, the head of Lake Champlain, at Whitehall. This branch is 65 miles long. The Erie canal then connects with Lake Erie, at Buffalo;

with Lake Ontario, at Oswego, and at Sackett's Harbor; with Lake Champlain, at Whitehall, and with the Hudson, at Albany; by which an unbroken water communication is established between those lakes and the Atlantic.

There are, however, other connections between this canal and the Atlantic, which should be noticed. The Chenango canal from Utica, 110 miles west of Albany, to the Susquehanna, at Binghamton, thence by the Susquehanna to the Pennsylvania canals. The Genesee Valley canal from Rochester, 270 miles west of Albany, to Olean point, at the head of boat navigation on the Allegheny. It is 120 miles long, and has 114 locks.

By Canal and Railroad.—From the Erie canal, at Montezuma, 205 miles west of Albany, to Philadelphia, and thence to Baltimore by railroad, or by canal and river navigation, namely:

Seneca canal	-	-	-	-	-	-	23 miles.
Seneca lake	-	-	-	-	-	-	40 "
Chemung canal	-	-	-	-	-	-	23 "
Williamsport and Elmira railroad	-	-	-	-	-	-	73 "
Susquehanna canal, and West Branch canal	-	-	-	-	-	-	94 "
Harrisburg and Lancaster, and Columbia railroads	-	-	-	-	-	-	107 "
Total to Philadelphia							360

From the Erie canal, at Montezuma, to Cayuga lake, thence the Ithaca and Oswego railroad to the Susquehanna, at Oswego; thence by the river to Tioga point, where it intersects the canal at Philadelphia; and thence by railroad or water, or both, to Baltimore.

There is also a continuous railroad from Buffalo to Albany, and from Albany to Boston.

2d. *Canal and Railroad from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh.*—As this route connects the Atlantic with the Ohio—and the latter has its connections with both the lakes and the Mississippi river—it becomes a route within the scope of the resolution of the Senate. The route is made up of the following parts:

The Columbia railroad from Philadelphia to Harrisburg, on the Susquehanna	-	-	-	-	-	-	82 miles.
Centre division of the Pennsylvania canal from Columbia to Holidaysburg	-	-	-	-	-	-	172 "
Portage railroad from Holidaysburg to Johnstown	-	-	-	-	-	-	36 "
Western division of the Pennsylvania canal from Johnstown to Pittsburgh	-	-	-	-	-	-	104 "
Total							394

The Columbia railroad, 82 miles long, has its summit at "Mine ridge gap," about 55 miles from Philadelphia, where it attains an elevation of 335 feet above tide. The maximum grade, exclusive of the inclined plane, with a stationary engine at the Schuylkill river, is 45 feet in the mile. The centre division of the Pennsylvania canal, 172 miles long, is 40 feet wide at top, 28 feet wide at bottom, and four feet deep. It rises 670 feet between Columbia and Holidaysburg. In this distance, there are 18 dams, 108 lift locks, and 16 miles of slack-water navigation. The locks on the lower part of the canal, below Duncan's island, are 90 feet long, by 17 feet wide; those above, between Duncan's island and Holidaysburg, are 90 feet long, and 15 feet wide.

The Allegheny Portage railroad is 36 miles long. It ascends 1,398 feet in 10 miles, and falls 1,172 feet in about 26 miles. The western division of the Pennsylvania canal is 104 miles long, 40 feet wide at top, 28 feet wide at bottom, and four feet deep. It has 66 locks, each 90 feet long, by 15 feet wide.

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

We shall, as our limits permit, collate, from the mass of material accumulating on our hands, condensed statements of railroad improvements in this country and elsewhere, as a necessary and important portion of our statistical Register.

We begin with the *railroads of New York*, in which state the earliest enterprises of the kind were successfully conducted. The continuation of the subject, in future numbers, will embrace the condition and progress of the work in other states.

Appended to this account is a list of the railroads in the Union, with the date of their commencement and cost.

NEW YORK RAILROADS.

Name of the road.	Number of miles in operation.	Cost of construction.	Expenses of repairing, running, &c.	Number of passengers.	Income from passengers, freight, &c.
Albany and Schenectady, - -	17	\$1,521,216	\$60,310	229,401	\$164,377
Utica and Schenectady, - -	78	2,833,380	234,243	266,533	698,714
Syracuse and Utica, - - -	53	1,429,442	124,631	198,511	350,279
Auburn and Syracuse, - - -	26	771,282	61,209	140,605	157,109
Auburn and Rochester, - - -	78½	2,087,797	154,613	189,344	395,766
Tonawanda, - - - - -	43½	805,530	55,718	134,067	194,751
Attica and Buffalo, - - -	31	487,543	49,000	130,799	136,782
Buffalo and Niagara Falls, -	22	171,675	18,879	78,506	47,642
Saratoga and Schenectady, -	22	300,000	30,288	53,477	43,796
Schenectady and Troy, - - -	20½	658,366	38,337	68,878	46,121
Rensselaer and Saratoga, -	25	475,801	37,718	66,293	61,269
Long Island, - - - - -	98½	2,045,325	142,220	191,316	158,705
Albany and West Stockbridge,	38½	1,789,892	44,234	145,446	
Troy and Greenbush, - - -	6	290,241	42,756	198,152	63,829
New York and Harlem, - - -	53	1,874,892	136,268	1,578,270	255,211
Hudson River, - - - - -		{ Not in operation.			
New York and Erie, - - -	62	2,759,835	172,970	155,294	254,119
Saratoga and Washington, -		{ Not in operation.			
Hudson and Berkshire, - - -	31	575,613	23,500	13,742	28,783
Buffalo and Black Rock, - - -	3	20,000	1,825	20,492	2,364
Cayuga and Susquehanna, -	29	18,000	21,088	3,456	21,225
Skaneateles and Jordan, - - -	{ Not reported.	28,211	2,554	4,136	3,369

Since the annual report from which the above table is taken, the New York and Erie Railroad Company have completed thirteen additional miles of the road; so that they have now 75 miles in running order, as far as Port Jervis, on the Delaware river. From Port Jervis to Binghamton, 127 miles, the road is under contract, and will be completed in a few months. From Binghamton to Elmira, 60 miles, will very soon thereafter be completed. A charter has been obtained for a road to connect Elmira with the head of Seneca lake, a distance of 17 or 18 miles.

On the great line of railroad between Albany and Buffalo the heavy T rails are being laid, the completion of which will very much facilitate the traveling between those two cities. The Syracuse and Rochester railroad is also in a state of progress. The Harlem Railroad Company is constructing 29 miles of road from the Croton Falls, through Putnam and Dutchess counties, to Dover

Plains, and expect to finish it during the present year. The affairs of the Long Island railroad are being put in a better condition, and it is expected that it will be a more valuable property than it has hitherto been.

The following table shows the comparative condition of some of the leading roads in 1846 and 1847:—

New York and Erie.

	1846.	1847.
Number of through passengers, - - - - -	16,920	36,506
“ way passengers, - - - - -	86,368	118,788
Receipts from through passengers, - - - - -	\$19,637	\$37,342
“ way passengers, - - - - -	45,116	63,648
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	120,761	153,128
Total income, - - - - -	\$185,514	\$254,118
Repairs, running road and ferry, - - - - -	\$123,173	\$172,970
Miles run by passenger trains, - - - - -	58,793	89,800
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	38,974	69,830

Albany and Schenectady.

	1846.	1847.
Number of passengers, - - - - -	174,653	229,401
Receipts from passengers, - - - - -	\$92,194	\$110,051
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	33,641	51,323
Total income, - - - - -	\$125,835	\$164,374
Repairs and running road, - - - - -	\$41,766	\$60,310
Miles run by passenger trains, - - - - -	45,357	49,674
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	16,515	22,821
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1847, - - - - -		\$1,472,966
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1848, - - - - -		1,473,253

Attica and Buffalo.

	1846.	1847.
Number of through passengers, - - - - -	77,517	115,289
“ way passengers, - - - - -	10,116	15,560
Receipts from through passengers, - - - - -	\$67,793	\$96,764
“ way passengers, - - - - -	4,611	7,246
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	14,088	19,800
Total income, - - - - -	\$86,492	\$123,810
Repairs and running road, - - - - -	\$47,723	\$49,000
Miles run by passenger trains, - - - - -	54,261	59,211
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	10,391	17,580
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1847, - - - - -		306,704
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1848, - - - - -		412,188

Auburn and Rochester.

	1846.	1847.
Number of through passengers, - - - - -	62,218	90,384
“ way passengers, - - - - -	80,037	98,960
Receipts from through passengers, - - - - -	\$169,006	\$228,795
“ way passengers, - - - - -	84,066	105,915
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	37,097	61,056
Total income, - - - - -	\$290,169	\$395,766

Repairs and running roads, - - - - -	\$110,353	\$154,613
Miles run by passenger trains, - - - - -	135,563	145,809
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	53,682	77,307
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1847, - - - - -		\$1,865,044
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1848, - - - - -		2,087,797

Buffalo and Niagara Falls.

	1846.	1847.
Number of through passengers, - - - - -	42,899	66,294
“ way passengers, - - - - -	7,916	12,212
Receipts from passengers, - - - - -	\$29,840	\$43,726
“ freight, &c., - - - - -	4,114	3,914
Total income, - - - - -	\$33,954	\$47,630
Repairs and running road, - - - - -	\$14,644	\$18,872
Miles run by trains, - - - - -	24,500	26,596
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1847, - - - - -		\$205,902
Cost of construction to Jan. 1, 1848, (so stated,) - - - - -		171,676

Railroads on the Eastern side of the Hudson River, now constructing or in contemplation, and connecting with the City of New York.

These are the *Hudson River Road*, which is at some future period to connect the commercial and political capitals of the state, and to complete the iron chain from the Atlantic to the great lakes; the New York and Harlem Railroad with the contemplated branch to Hartford; the New Haven Railroad; the Housatonic; the contemplated Naugatuck; the Canal Railroad; and the projected Air line road to Boston. The work on the *Hudson River Road* is vigorously prosecuted, and we believe that a portion of the line will be in working order before the ensuing winter sets in, and the whole completed as soon as the magnitude of the work will permit. The *New Haven Road*, with some of its branches, will be finished, and in full operation, by the first of December next.

The following article, prepared for one of the New York papers, by a gentleman conversant with the statistics of the several roads, contains a fund of information, and will afford subject matter for most profitable reflection.

“The New Haven road connects at Bridgeport with the Housatonic Railroad. The Housatonic road, including the Berkshire, which is controlled and operated by the same company, extends from Bridgeport to the State line, a distance of 98 miles—there connecting with the Western Railroad from Boston to Albany. The gross earning of the Housatonic, for 1848, will probably be \$300,000. A large portion of the freight and passengers on this road are destined for, or come from, New York, now transported by steamboat. A branch is chartered, and soon to be built, diverging from the Berkshire Road, at Great Barrington, running through Housatonicville, Stockbridge, Lee, and Lennox, to Pittsfield—there to connect with the Western Railroad, and with the Pittsfield and North Adams road, now built and in operation.

“This line will probably soon be extended to Rutland, Vermont—there to connect with the Vermont and Massachusetts Railroad now building from Rutland to Burlington—thus making an almost direct line from Bridgeport to Canada. At the Housatonic river, at Milford, the New York and New Haven connect with the Naugatuck Railroad—extending to the Naugatuck Valley, through Derby, Birmingham, Ansonia, Humphreysville, Naugatuck, Waterbury, Plymouth, Welcottville, to Winsted; all of which are very thriving manufacturing villages, furnishing large amounts of freight and passengers destined for New

York. This road is 56 miles long, and is now in course of construction. At New Haven the New York and New Haven connects.

“1st. With the canal railroad, now built and in operation, to Plainville, and to be extended during the present season to Collinsville—distance to Plainville twenty-eight miles, thence to Collinsville twelve miles. This road is leased to the New York and New Haven Company, at a rent proportioned to the gross receipts—thus giving the New York and New Haven Company the control of its business without risk of loss.

“2d. It connects at New Haven with the New Haven, Hartford, and Springfield Railroad, extending from New Haven to Springfield, there connecting with the Western Railroad, and also with the Connecticut River Railroad, now built and in operation from Springfield to Greenfield, thirty-six miles, and destined to be extended up the Connecticut river valley, doubtless to Canada.

“3d. At New Haven it will connect with the New York and Boston, or “Air Line” road, which is now proposed to be built through Middletown and Willimantic to Providence, and will thus bring on to the New York and New Haven a vast amount of business from all that portion of Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, lying East of Connecticut river, and South of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, which now goes to New York by steamboats, and will make the shortest practicable and feasible railroad line between Boston and New York. Applications are now pending before the legislature of Connecticut for a charter from New London to New Haven.”

It is estimated that the New York and New Haven road will bring to the city from 2,000 to 2,500 passengers daily, the first three months after it is opened, and that it will increase before the expiration of the year to nearly or quite double that number. It is impossible to estimate the amount of freight furnished by the large number of manufacturing towns located along the road and its branches. From information received the past week, the Air Line Railroad from New Haven will be made with as little delay as possible.

The average number of passengers arriving daily at the Harlem depot, on Fourth Avenue, is from 800 to 1000. The whole number of way and through passengers which passed over the road the past year, amounts to 1,700,000. When the road is extended to Dover Plains, perhaps by the first of December next, they estimate the number passing over the road daily, at 1,500 to 2,000 at least; and that the whole number of way and through passengers will, during the year, number not less than two and a half millions. The work of extending the road through to Albany will progress with all possible dispatch. No estimate can safely be made, either as to the amount of freights or number of passengers then to pass over the road; but taking the various roads coming into Boston as a criterion, the business of the road must be quadrupled. The receipt for freight has been, the past year, about \$50,000. It is estimated that the coming year it will amount to nearly or quite \$100,000. The farmers in Dutchess county, in anticipation of the road being extended to Dover Plains, are greatly increasing the products of their lands.

The right of way to Dover Plains, and the iron rails, have cost \$90,000 less than the estimate made by the engineer. The through passengers to Dover Plains are estimated, for the coming year, at from 8 to 10,000. A continuous route from New York to Montreal, via Harlem Railroad, is considered certain, eventually.—*Express*.

TABLE OF PRINCIPAL RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

We annex to the foregoing Railroad Statistics of New York a list of the prominent roads in the Union, collected from the most authentic sources.

Names.	States.	Miles in Length.	When Opened.
Western - - -	Massachusetts.	156	1839
Boston and Worcester - - -	"	58-44½	1835
Eastern - - -	"	54	1840
Norwich and Worcester - - -	"	66	1839
Boston and Lowell - - -	"	26	1835
Boston and Providence - - -	"	42	1834
Boston and Maine - - -	"	72	1836
New Bedford - - -	"	20	1840
Nashua and Lowell - - -	"	15	1838
Taunton - - -	"	11	1836
Fitchburgh - - -	"	50	1845
Old Colony - - -	"	37	1845
Connecticut River - - -	"	36	1846
Fall River - - -	"	41	1846
Pittsfield and North Adams - - -	"	20	1846
Providence and Worcester - - -	"	43½	1847
Cape Cod Branch - - -	"	28	1848
Bangor and Oldtown - - -	Maine	12	1836
Portland and Portsmouth - - -	"	52	1846
Eastern Railroad in N. H. - - -	New Hampshire	16	
Nashua and Concord - - -	"	35	1847
Providence and Stonington - - -	Rhode Island	48	1838
Hartford, New Haven & Springfield	Connecticut	62	
Bridgport & West Stockbridge, or Housatonic - - -	"	98	
Albany and Schenectady - - -	New York	17	1831
Utica and Schenectady - - -	"	78	1836
Syracuse and Utica - - -	"	53	1839
Auburn and Syracuse - - -	"	26	1839
Auburn and Rochester - - -	"	78½	1840
Tonawanda - - -	"	43½	1839
Attica and Buffalo - - -	"	31	1842
Buffalo and Niagara Falls - - -	"	22	1836
Saratoga and Schenectady - - -	"	22	1832
Schenectady and Troy - - -	"	20½	1842
Rensselaer and Saratoga - - -	"	25	1835
Long Island - - -	"	98½	1838
Albany and West Stockbridge - - -	"	38½	
Troy and Greenbush - - -	"	6	1845
New York and Harlem - - -	"	53	1832
Hudson River - - -	"		
New York and Erie - - -	"	75	
Saratoga and Washington - - -	"		
Hudson and Berkshire - - -	"	31	1839
Buffalo and Black Rock - - -	"	3	
Cayuga and Susquehanna - - -	"	29	
Skeneateles and Jordan - - -	"		
Camden and Amboy - - -	New Jersey	61	1833
Patterson and Hudson River - - -	"	16½	1834

Names.	States.	Miles in Length.	When Opened.
Morris and Essex - -	New Jersey	23	1836
N. Y. & Philadelphia to Tacony	"	82	
Elizabethtown and Centreville	"	26	
Philadelphia and Trenton -	Pennsylvania	26½	
Phil. Germantown, & Norristown	"	17	1835
Philadelphia and Wilmington	"	27	1837
Philadelphia and Reading -	"	92	
Columbia - - -	"	82	
Cumberland Valley - -	"	56	1837
Franklin - - -	"	30	
Little Schuylkill and Susquehanna	"	106	
Williamsport and Elmira, N. Y.	"	73	
Blosburgh and Corning, N. Y.	"	40	
Mauch Chunk, and Branches	"	26	
Lehigh and Susquehanna -	"	20	
Carbondale and Honesdale -	"		
Harrisburgh and Lancaster -	"	36	1838
With several others in the same State.			
Newcastle and Frenchtown -	Delaware	17	1832
Baltimore and Ohio - -	Maryland	179	1830
Baltimore and Wilmington -	"	70	
Baltimore and Washington -	"	40	1835
Annapolis and Elkridge -	"	21	1840
Baltimore and Susquehanna	"	71	1838
Frederick Branch - -	"	62	
Richmond and Fredericksburgh	Virginia	76	1835
Richmond and Petersburg -	"	22½	1838
Louisa, Taylorsville, &c. -	"	58	
Petersburgh - - -	"	63	1833
Winchester and Potomac -	"	32	1838
Greensville and Roanoke -	"	21	1838
Portsmouth and Roanoke -	"	78	
Gaston and Raleigh - -	North Carolina	87	1838
Seaboard and Roanoke -	"	40	
Wilmington and Weldon -	"	161	1840
Branchville and Columbia -	South Carolina	68	1842
South Carolina Railroad -	"	136	1830
Georgia Railroad - - -	Georgia	171	1845
Georgia Central - - -	"	191	1842
Macon and Western - -	"	101	1846
Western and Atlantic - -	"	100	1847
Athens Branch - - -	"	40	1843
West Feliciana - - -	"	24	1842
Montgomery and Westpoint -	Alabama	45	
Tuscumbia and Decatur -	"	46	
Vicksburgh and Jackson -	Mississippi	46	
Mississippi - - -	"	22	
St. Francisville and Woodville	"	28	
Lexington and Ohio - -	Kentucky	28	1834
Tallahassee and St. Marks -	Florida	26	
St. Joseph - - -	"	28	
Little Miami - - -	Ohio	84	1841
Mad River and Lake Erie -	"	102	1838
Mansfield and Sandusky City	"	56	1846

Names.	States.	Miles in Length.	When Opened.
Madison and Indianapolis -	Ohio	86	1838
Michigan Central -	Michigan	146	1846
Detroit and Pontiac -	"	25	1843
Erie and Kalamazoo (Adrian to Toledo)	"	33	1846
Michigan Southern -	"	68	1838

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF RUSSIA.

Russia is beyond question the great rival of the United States in the corn markets of the world. We have before us an estimate by a Russian nobleman, prepared for the "*London Economist*," of the average quantity annually of grain of all kinds produced in Russia. The statement is as follows:

"The present population of Russia, in Europe, is 65,000,000, of whom about 15,000,000 are males, engaged in agriculture. On an average there are annually sown with *winter grain*, 18,750,000 hectares, yielding

At least nine hectolitres per hectare, or	168,750,000	Hectolitres.
Deduct seed at the rate of two hectolitres per hectare	37,500,000	
Leaving a clear produce of four and a half fold	<u>131,250,000</u>	
<i>Spring grain</i> , 18,750,000 hectares, yielding at least thirteen and a half hectolitres per hectare, or	253,125,000	
Deduct seed at the rate of three hectolitres per hectare, or	56,250,000	
Leaving also a clear produce of four and a half fold, or	<u>196,875,000</u>	

Together

328,125,000

Or equal to 112,844,239 imperial quarters.

The annual consumption of 65,000,000 of population may be taken at	195,000,000	
The annual consumption in brewing and distillation,	25,000,000	
The annual consumption for food of horses, cattle, &c., say of 25,000,000 head (exclusive of refuse from breweries and distilleries, grass and hay,)	50,000,000	
The annual consumption for fattening cattle, hogs, poultry, &c.,	7,000,000	
Estimated total consumption of the country	<u>277,000,000</u>	
Leaving on the most moderate computation, an average annual surplus for exportation, of	<u>51,125,000</u>	
Or 17,582,200 imperial quarters."		

Or 140,657,600 bushels. One hectare is nearly two and a half English acres. One hectolitre is a little more than two and three-fourths imperial bushels.

Large as the statement from the "*Economist*" makes the quantities of the grain produced annually in Russia to appear, it may, perhaps not be too great. We find in McGregor's Commercial Statistics, volume 2, page 734, the following statement of the produce of grain in Russia in Europe, derived from Schnitzler's Statistics of that empire in 1835, viz:

Average quantities sown, 50,000,000 chetwerts. Average produce three and a half for one. Total average produce, 181,000,000 chetwerts, or about 126,500,000 quarters, (or 1,012,000,000 bushels.) Total average consumption, including seed and the supply of distilleries, 141,000,000 chetwerts. Total average disposable surplus, 40,000,000 chetwerts, or about 28,000,000 quarters (or 224,000,000 bushels.) These quantities include grain of all kinds.

In a recent German work of great authority and ability, we have found a very full description of the soil, climate and productions of Russia, which impresses

us with the belief that the productive capabilities of that empire are much exaggerated. We annex a few paragraphs, extracted from the work alluded to:

“Agriculture in Russia is still in its primitive state, though the number of products and their quantity is great, and no province furnishes more than one-half of its natural capacity. For this reason does the soil, *in by far the greatest portion* of Russia, possess no real intrinsic value; the latter depending entirely on the labor of man, so that instead of asking the number of acres, the number of hands that belong to it, form the measure of its value. The best cultivated provinces of Russia are on the Baltic, in the provinces adjacent to Moscow, and in the Russian provinces of Poland; but even in these provinces are to be found immense districts of which not the fifteenth part is as yet taken into cultivation.

The whole area of Russia in Europe is 1,742,145,725 Prussian acres, of which 676,000,000 are covered with forests and under-wood; 771,000,000 acres are wholly unfit for cultivation, (“unland”); there remains consequently but 246,500,000 acres fit for agricultural purposes, and about 24,500,000 acres capable of being used as pasturage.

Indian corn (maize) is principally grown on the shores of the Black Sea; the provinces on the Baltic and western Russia furnish the greatest quantity of hemp and flax; potatoes have but lately been generally introduced; the raising of grain (oats, &c.) for feeding cattle is entirely neglected.

There exists an official seven years’ average for the whole crop of all the Russias, Poland alone excepted. From this it appears that the yearly crop of all Russia yielded 167,112,224 chetwerts; while that of Poland alone amounted to 280,906,000 chetwerts.

According to official reports on the state of agriculture, it appears that, in 1832, there were used as seed 19,269,088 chetwerts of winter grain, and in the spring of 1833, 28,920,754 chetwerts of summer grain, making together 48,189,842 chetwerts of grain.

The exports from Russia were—

In the year	(one chetwert is equal to six English bushels, nearly.)
1830	3,935,000 chetwerts.
1831	3,790,000 “
1832	3,500,000 “

In 1833 there was an entire failure of crops, which in 1834 caused the permission of free importations of grain which, from a partial failure of the crops of 1834 was, by an imperial ukase, dated December 1st, 1834, extended, for the ports of the Black Sea and the Sea of Asof, to the 1st of January, 1836, and in consequence of a new total failure of crops in southern Russia, further extended by the ukase of the 9th January, 1835, to the Austrian and Prussian frontier and the ports of the Baltic and the White Sea. The abundant grain crops of Poland, especially in the Woiwodships, Sandomir, Lublin and even Massovia, have already been celebrated in the middle ages; but they are more owing to the excellent soil than the progress of agriculture in that country.

See *Handbauch der Allgeminen Staats Kunde in Europe* von Dr. Friedrich Wilhelm Schubert, Professor der Geschichte und Staats Kunde, and der Universität zu Königsberg.

(*Handbook of the General Science of States in Europe*, by Dr. Frederick William Schubert, Professor of History and Science of State at the University of Königsberg,) Königsberg, 1835, 1 vol., 1st section, pp. 211, 214.

EXPORT OF BREADSTUFFS FROM CRONSTADT, RUSSIA.

Comparative note of Grain, Flour, and Meal cleared out from Cronstadt, and remaining on the spot, at the close of the navigation of 1844, 1845, 1846, and 1847.

		CORN.				FLOUR.	
		Wheat, chets.	Rye, chets.	Oats, chets.	Peas, chets.	Rye, bgs 9 pds.	Wheat, bgs 5 pds.
London	1844	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1845	12,062	—	1,600	—	—	—
	1846	10,515	120	50,203	723	207	—
	1847	95,160	4,920	54,974	2,163	8,978	6,497
Out ports.	1844	—	—	2,000	—	—	—
	1845	1,422	—	1,100	—	—	20
	1846	21,075	16,396	12,764	10,273	—	—
	1847	218,660	21,644	218,150	5,119	273,725	8,077
Foreign ports.	1844	—	—	—	—	—	9
	1845	2,301	41,771	—	1,370	11,896	42
	1846	19,881	573,063	—	992	15,794	28
	1847	211,184	658,944	110,318	257	336,006	8,674
Total in.	1844	—	—	2,000	—	—	9
	1845	15,785	41,771	2,700	1,370	11,896	62
	1846	51,471	589,579	62,967	18,502	15,814	28
	1847	525,004	686,508	383,442	7,539	618,709	23,248
Remaining on the spot in	1844	—	—	—	uncert'n	uncert'n	uncert'n
	1845	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1846	30,000	30,000	200,000	—	—	—
	1847	231,000	262,000	469,000	18,500	374,000	64,000

EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

We have before us a report of the Register of the Treasury, of the commerce and navigation of the United States for 1847, which is worthy of more than a passing notice. During that year breadstuffs to the amount of \$57,000,000 were exported from this country—the value of flour being \$26,000,000; wheat, \$6,000,000; Indian corn and meal, \$18,000,000; and cotton, \$53,000,000. The value of manufactures exported was less than \$10,000,000, of which \$4,000,000 was for manufactures of cotton. The export of fish amounted to \$800,000, and of oil, whalebone and candles to upwards of \$2,000,000. In value, nearly half of these exports were to England; to France, \$17,000,000; Ireland, \$12,000,000; British West Indies, \$4,000,000; British American Colonies, \$6,000,000; Cuba, \$6,000,000; Brazil and Chili, \$4,000,000; Italy, 1,000,000; Austria, \$1,000,000; Hayti, \$1,200,000, &c.

The value of foreign exports—i. e. exports from the United States of goods, wares and merchandise of the growth and manufacture of foreign countries—was \$8,011,158. More than one-fourth of these exports were to British American Colonies; namely, \$2,165,876. To Cuba, about a million; England, \$800,000; to Belgium, \$348,000; Hanse Towns, \$266,000; France, \$450,000; South America, \$700,000; Hayti, \$112,000, &c.

Almost all the exports of foreign produce were from New York and Massachusetts. Including both foreign and domestic, the exports from New York were nearly \$50,000,000; South Carolina, \$10,000,000; Maryland, \$9,000,000; Louisiana, \$42,000,000; Massachusetts, \$11,000,000; Pennsylvania, \$8,000,000, &c. &c.

The value of imports for the year is \$149,545,638. Of this amount \$41,772,636 was for articles admitted free of duty—including nearly 16,500,000 pounds of tea, and 140,000,000 pounds of coffee, together valued at over \$13,000,000; and \$24,000,000 of specie.

Of articles paying ad valorem duty, the value was \$91,000,000, and of articles paying specie duty \$13,000,000.

The annexed table, from the N. Y. Herald, exhibits the quantity of breadstuffs exported from the principal ports of the United States to Great Britain and Ireland from the 1st of September, 1847, to the latest dates, 1848, compared with the corresponding period the previous year:—

Exports of Breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland.

	Flour, bbls.	Corn Meal, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.
New York to June 6 - - -	137,189	33,800	177,934	1,218,512
Philadelphia to May 31 - -	1,573	27,158	—	187,862
Baltimore to June 3 - - -	770	1,796	4,010	100,194
Boston to June 3 - - -	704	3,900	—	119,993
New Orleans to May 27 - -	15,546	24,997	33,195	1,126,482
Other ports to May 31 - -	—	—	—	34,813
From Sept. 1, 1847, to latest dates, 1848 - - -	155,782	91,651	215,139	2,787,856
Same time previous year	1,988,890	642,542	1,903,019	13,387,089
Decrease this year - -	1,833,108	550,891	1,687,880	10,599,233

There were exported, last year, 46,171 bushels of rye, 373,972 bushels of oats, and 172,202 bushels of barley. This season, not a bushel of these grains has been exported to Great Britain or Ireland. The above statement shows an immense falling off in the shipments of all kinds of breadstuffs. We annex a table giving the value of the shipments of breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland, up to the latest dates each year:—

Value of Breadstuffs Exported to Great Britain and Ireland, 1847 and 1848.

	1847.		
	Quantity.	Price.	Value.
Flour, bbls. - - - -	1,988,890	\$9 25	\$18,397,232 00
Corn meal, bbls. - - -	642,542	5 75	3,694,616 50
Wheat, bushels - - -	1,903,019	2 15	4,091,490 85
Corn, bushels - - - -	13,387,089	1 25	16,733,861 25
Rye, bushels - - - -	46,171	1 40	64,639 40
Oats, bushels - - - -	373,972	68	234,300 96
Barley - - - -	172,202	90	154,981 80
Total value, - - - -	- - - -	- - - -	\$43,371,122 76
	1848.		
	Quantity.	Price.	Value.
Flour, bbls. - - - -	155,782	\$6 00	\$934,692 00
Corn meal, bbls. - - -	91,651	2 50	229,127 50
Wheat, bushels - - -	215,139	1 35	290,437 65
Corn, bushels - - - -	2,787,856	60	1,672,713 60
Total value, 1848 - - -	- - - -	- - - -	\$3,126,970 75
Total value, 1847 - - -	- - - -	- - - -	43,371,122 76
Deficiency thus far, 1848 - - -	- - - -	- - - -	\$40,244,152 01

We extract from the N. Y. Express the following:—

The returns of the imports at the port of New York for the first six months of the past three years are as follows:—

		<i>Free Goods.</i>		
		1846.	1847.	1848.
January	- - - -	\$376,905	\$478,443	\$1,000,829
February	- - - -	474,360	285,128	141,359
March	- - - -	1,092,476	786,937	2,199,749
April	- - - -	2,228,878	1,987,033	475,314
May	- - - -	1,300,751	738,755	1,283,754
June	- - - -	1,239,006	401,358	525,088
Total	- - - -	\$6,712,376	\$4,677,654	\$5,026,093
		<i>Dutiable Goods.</i>		
January	- - - -	\$4,842,884	\$5,499,682	\$9,104,104
February	- - - -	4,177,952	5,889,387	9,566,859
March	- - - -	8,657,793	6,060,746	5,971,601
April	- - - -	4,105,393	8,339,429	6,639,716
May	- - - -	4,160,360	5,868,261	5,087,279
June	- - - -	4,605,527	6,689,109	4,718,404
Total	- - - -	\$30,549,909	\$38,346,614	\$41,087,963
		<i>Specie.</i>		
January	- - - -	\$43,221	\$90,874	\$48,032
February	- - - -	96,779	1,235,122	49,502
March	- - - -	62,225	1,329,458	22,781
April	- - - -	106,544	3,397,064	165,919
May	- - - -	27,286	1,326,687	133,922
June	- - - -	29,122	547,813	69,532
Total	- - - -	\$365,177	\$7,927,028	\$489,688
		<i>Cash Received.</i>		
January	- - - -	\$1,471,844	\$1,434,836	\$2,305,017
February	- - - -	1,255,651	1,496,716	2,416,497
March	- - - -	2,608,734	1,652,092	1,553,003
April	- - - -	1,373,752	2,109,404	1,686,506
May	- - - -	1,268,952	1,487,173	1,312,036
June	- - - -	1,462,098	1,460,017	1,143,497
Total	- - - -	\$9,441,031	\$9,640,238	\$10,416,556

Exports of Breadstuffs from Philadelphia for a series of years.

[Prepared by Col. Childs, editor of Commercial List.]*

We noticed in our first number (p. 97) that Col. C. had in preparation a set of tables exhibiting the exports of breadstuffs from the United States since 1785: we are now enabled to give the following statement of exports from Philadelphia from the year 1790 until the present time.

Years.	Wheat Flour.		Rye Flour.		Corn Meal.	
	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.
1790	118,844	\$831,908	6,407	\$25,628	53,717	\$161,151
1791	310,066	1,550,330	9,651	29,953	44,183	100,166
1792	376,366	1,872,984	4,199	14,462	36,479	100,492
1793	326,584	1,917,895	10,905	42,034	21,186	64,744

* We are informed by Col. C. that there are some inaccuracies in this table, in consequence of his sickness at the time it was made up—they will be rectified hereafter.

Years.	Wheat Flour.		Rye Flour.		Corn Meal.	
	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.
1794	259,855	2,068,302	1,262	5,133	42,228	119,778
1795	86,352	975,049	8,086	37,014	50,605	186,193
1796	170,414	1,363,312	16,837	84,185	74,388	371,940
1797	116,706	933,648	8,703	43,515	70,099	210,297
1798	82,197	657,576	18,962	31,600	31,142	93,426
1799	92,668	741,341	15,533	25,890	107,981	297,980
1800	145,170	1,161,360	28,142	40,710	30,986	92,958
1801	233,781	1,870,248	40,270	201,350	163,417	490,251
1802	240,309	1,922,472	5,148	25,740	50,303	150,909
1803	257,001	1,686,443	9,197	33,580	52,316	160,725
1804	142,207	1,113,565	3,657	16,454	64,852	267,900
1805	201,011	1,861,651	5,618	35,476	38,060	216,921
1806	208,039	1,490,131	4,095	20,421	37,037	131,625
1807	297,426	2,086,331	9,427	42,142	58,391	244,271
1808						
1809	247,014	1,598,218	156	756	36,400	142,608
1810	198,124	1,815,624	2,334	11,478	51,361	179,121
1811	290,816	2,908,160	13,892	83,352	67,064	268,256
1812	318,730	3,167,300	25,876	159,250	21,592	86,368
1813	84,428	744,280	392	3,250	886	3,544
1814	24,153	226,015			715	2,860
1815	164,537	1,443,431	1,610	9,679	44,655	223,269
1816	134,563	1,345,620	4,138	28,966	34,310	205,860
1817	281,161	2,811,610	26,818	187,726	42,696	256,176
1818	210,883	2,108,830	36,717	152,567	36,481	146,302
1819	139,814	1,010,284	9,814	38,582	44,022	144,922
1820	219,865	1,025,082	8,842	26,332	56,676	148,539
1821	63,810	275,449	2,162	6,542	20,759	45,322
1836	505,400		36,646		140,917	
1837	318,719		28,323		159,435	
1838	448,161		12,864		171,843	
1839	194,434	1,367,859	24,283	114,736	73,486	291,683
1840	322,319	1,648,248	41,506	112,408	109,889	305,301
1841	198,978	1,071,045	25,651	85,607	109,705	313,804
1842	161,866	792,539	22,530	81,308	97,884	358,984
1843	128,517	770,806	22,303	57,071	106,484	270,594
1844	196,433	862,405	21,904	68,195	101,356	240,320
1845	201,956	896,601	17,098	57,774	115,101	278,214
1846	366,610	1,778,299	19,730	65,834	144,857	463,071
1847	420,684	2,792,770	20,407	99,436	300,531	1,341,928

Years.	Shipbread.		Wheat.		Corn.	
	Barrels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.
1790	11,853	\$47,412			364,453	\$218,671
1791	33,980	122,659	215,554	\$215,594	556,526	242,695
1792	177,178	159,669	145,795	144,655	223,952	98,633
1793	35,906	102,811	171,091	200,560	254,062	156,522
1794	30,649	68,996	180,223	241,580	345,522	235,316
1795	20,303	102,005	19,470	38,935	391,923	326,013
1796	20,918	104,590			179,514	107,708
1797	14,033	70,165	5,246	7,886	110,272	66,163
1798	10,184	50,920			184,686	110,763
1799	20,131	100,655			250,971	150,983
1800	26,738	133,690	1,440	2,160	235,672	141,403

Years.	Shipbread.		Wheat.		Corn.	
	Barrels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.
1801	15,432	77,710	1,907	2,860	216,056	129,633
1802	50,050	101,010	8,670	13,005	345,966	207,597
1803	11,144	36,496	52,554	37,881	485,043	330,398
1804	17,737	30,164	1,122	1,682	321,330	307,564
1805	36,786	32,399			92,533	119,567
1806	31,183	37,987	3,404	4,731	294,637	135,394
1807	22,726	30,020	2,242	3,269	245,054	171,956
1808						
1809	14,944	29,040	35,045	48,034	126,585	75,645
1810	23,233	42,400	20,311	40,622	191,733	181,196
1811	23,338	65,356	111	224	517,681	517,681
1812	2,238	13,428			436,938	436,938
1813	354	2,112			1,890	1,890
1814	621	3,561				
1815	17,933	50,876	1,778	3,574	284,181	284,181
1816	31,762	30,317			95,009	95,009
1817	39,885	46,445			51,747	51,747
1818	30,990	48,942	10,322	20,644	388,817	388,817
1819	6,740	31,236			77,167	55,255
1820	9,294	26,301			21,151	11,569
1821	3,261	7,607			7,252	2,945
1836			2,062		124,791	
1837			17,303		151,275	
1838			6,291		172,321	
1839	44,328	117,893	37,663	47,737	19,142	16,439
1840	110,244	157,138	304,508	317,908	84,757	47,886
1841	47,951	122,271	59,449	66,055	76,117	50,603
1842	39,875	105,507	87,953	107,467	83,772	45,890
1843	55,425	122,557	32,235	31,284	74,613	44,175
1844	42,056	104,339	23,375	23,168	110,068	60,542
1845	17,098	99,757	86,089	124,568	129,257	78,908
1846	19,730	107,707	245,136	257,992	279,820	199,466
1847	20,407		522,538	786,028	1,102,210	1,081,636

CEREAL GRAINS OF THE UNITED STATES.

PRODUCTION OF 1847—CONSUMPTION AND SURPLUS FOR EXPORTATION.

[Hon. E. Burke's Report.]

I.—Quantity of the different Grains produced in the United States in 1847.

The following is the amount of the different kinds of grain produced in the United States in 1847, according to the estimate contained in the table preceding the agricultural report of this office for the present year, viz:—

Breadstuffs.	Bushels.	Total Bushels.
Indian corn or maize	539,350,000	
Wheat	114,245,500	
Rye	29,222,700	
Buckwheat	11,673,500	
		694,491,700
Grain not used for breadstuffs.		
Oats	167,867,000	
Barley	5,649,950	
		173,516,950
Total		868,008,650

		Other articles of food.	
Potatoes	- - -	- - -	100,950,000 bushels.
Beans and Peas	- - -	- - -	50,000,000 "
Rice	- - -	- - -	103,640,590 pounds.
Estimated population, 20,746,400.			

II.—*Amount of the Grains used for Food, consumed in the United States, showing surplus left for exportation.*

In estimating the domestic consumption of grains in the United States during the present year, we begin, first, with the quantity of each kind used for seed. And in relation to this item of consumption it is proper to remark, that we have taken for the basis of our calculations the estimates of intelligent practical agriculturists, residing in different parts of the Union, to whom we have personally applied for information. Making due allowance for different localities, soils and climates, it is believed they may be relied upon as very nearly accurate:—

Varieties.	Whole quantity raised. Bushels.	Quantity used for seed. Bushels.	Amount after deducting seed. Bushels.
Indian corn or maize	539,350,000	6,000,000	533,350,000
Wheat - - -	114,245,500	11,424,550	102,820,950
Rye - - -	29,222,700	3,652,587	25,570,113
Buckwheat - - -	11,673,500	723,343	10,950,157
	694,491,700	21,800,480	672,691,220

Note.—In this estimate we have allowed a gross amount for the seed used in the cultivation of Indian corn. For wheat we have allowed in the proportion of one bushel of seed to ten bushels of grain produced. Of rye, one bushel to eight; and of buckwheat, one bushel to sixteen. These proportions of seed to the quantities produced are greater than those allowed by the statistical writers of France for the crops of that country, and less than those allowed in England.

As oats are not used for human food in this country, we have not included that crop in the table above. The proportion, however, of seed to the quantity produced is about one bushel to twenty. Thus, after deducting from the crops of the various grains used for breadstuffs in the United States, in 1847, the quantity used for seed, 672,691,220 bushels remain for the use of men and animals, and for exportation to foreign countries.

In estimating the consumption of breadstuffs, English and French writers usually allow five bushels of wheat to each individual. In this country Indian corn enters largely into the consumption of nearly every class of the community. It is the principal food of the slave population, and is consumed in much greater proportion than wheat by the agricultural population of the New England states. The general use, therefore, of Indian corn, in the United States, as an article of human food, very much reduces the quantity of wheat consumed.

Another cause which tends to diminish the quantity of breadstuffs consumed by the people of the United States, is the large amount of animal food consumed by them, which can easily be obtained, and which forms a large item in the consumption of every class of the population of the Union, not excepting the slave population. Making an allowance for the use of Indian corn and animal food, it will appear that the quantity of wheat consumed by the people of the United States is much less, in proportion, than the quantity consumed by the people of other civilized countries. We do not believe it will exceed three bushels for each individual of the whole population of the Union, free and slave. As the slaves consume but very little wheat, of course the quantity for each white person would be greater.

POST OFFICE STATISTICS.

The following table exhibits the money paid by each state of the Union, for the postage of letters, newspapers, and pamphlets, during the year ending June 30th, 1847.

Maine	-	-	\$59,439	60	Georgia	-	-	\$55,858	90
New Hampshire	-	-	40,679	69	Florida	-	-	10,883	06
Vermont	-	-	34,338	20	Ohio	-	-	158,889	20
Massachusetts	-	-	218,200	85	Michigan	-	-	38,490	90
Rhode Island	-	-	26,832	80	Indiana	-	-	43,348	12
Connecticut	-	-	64,156	69	Illinois	-	-	52,359	19
New York	-	-	494,756	51	Missouri	-	-	41,505	78
New Jersey	-	-	39,586	50	Kentucky	-	-	53,632	42
Pennsylvania	-	-	252,176	42	Tennessee	-	-	37,987	06
Delaware	-	-	8,789	42	Alabama	-	-	49,602	32
Maryland	-	-	81,656	16	Mississippi	-	-	33,773	35
District of Columbia	-	-	179,390	64	Arkansas	-	-	9,568	62
Virginia	-	-	92,292	04	Louisiana	-	-	68,522	85
North Carolina	-	-	31,378	71	Texas	-	-	8,245	58
South Carolina	-	-	50,383	03	Iowa	-	-	9,494	95
Wisconsin	-	-	56,703	08					

Aggregate amount \$2,372,902 65

In contrast to the above, we give another table exhibiting the amounts paid by the government for transporting the mail in each of the several states:

Maine	-	-	\$41,965	Florida	-	-	\$45,193
New Hampshire	-	-	25,560	Ohio	-	-	170,295
Vermont	-	-	26,563	Michigan	-	-	38,211
Massachusetts	-	-	107,392	Indiana	-	-	52,439
Rhode Island	-	-	9,187	Illinois	-	-	102,485
Connecticut	-	-	45,797	Missouri	-	-	49,720
New York	-	-	229,307	Kentucky	-	-	89,581
New Jersey	-	-	58,930	Tennessee	-	-	55,298
Pennsylvania	-	-	155,412	Alabama	-	-	136,499
Delaware	-	-	7,862	Mississippi	-	-	58,451
Maryland	-	-	133,751	Arkansas	-	-	39,996
Virginia	-	-	192,615	Louisiana	-	-	41,795
North Carolina	-	-	172,520	Texas	-	-	24,102
South Carolina	-	-	118,157	Iowa	-	-	9,722
Georgia	-	-	153,001	Wisconsin	-	-	15,043

Aggregate amount \$2,485,819

By these tables it will be seen that the northern states pay much the greatest proportion of the expense of transporting the mails.

TEMPERATURE.

(From the Journal of Education.)

It is an interesting subject to observe and illustrate the influence of temperature upon the works of nature and art. The following extract is from a table prepared by Thomas Fisher, of Philadelphia. Professor Faraday, availing himself of the intense cold produced by evaporation of the mixture of solid carbonic acid and ether, under an exhausted receiver of an air pump, and assisted

by a pressure equal to fifty atmospheres, produced the greatest degree of cold yet known to chemists—viz: 166° of Fahrenheit below zero.

146 Degree of cold below zero, produced by Dr. J. K. Mitchell, of Philadelphia—alcohol becomes syrup.

103 Ammonia becomes a transparent solid of greater specific gravity than when liquid.—Farraday.

90 Greatest artificial cold produced by Mr. Walker of Liverpool.

78 Cold produced by mixing sulphuric acid and snow.

70 Natural temperature observed by Capt. Back, at Fort Reliance, north lat. 62° 46', lon. 109° west.

65 4 parts alcohol, 1 water became viscid—2 parts, 1 water, froze into ice.

58 Estimated temperature of planetary space.—Fourier.

57 Pyroligneous acid freezes.

55 Lowest degree registered by the thermometer of Capt. Sabine, during the winter of 1819, spent at Winter Harbor, Melville Island, north lat. 74° 47', lon. 110° 48' west. The mean temperature for six months, from November to April, inclusive, was 21¼ below zero.

55 Strong nitric acid freezes.

50 Natural temperature observed by Mr. Hutchins at Hudson's Bay.

46 Ether and liquid ammonia freeze.

45 Nitric acid freezes.—Cavendish.

39 Mercury freezes. Melting point of quicksilver.

36 Sulphuric acid freezes.—Thompson.

17 Creosote fluid.

11 2 parts alcohol, 1 part water, freeze.

7 ½ alcohol, ½ water, i. e. brandy, freezes.

3 Is the mean temperature of the coldest day ever known in the vicinity of Philadelphia.

Zero is nearly the greatest extreme of cold known at Philadelphia. Equal portions of snow and salt produce zero.

+7 1 part alcohol, 3 parts water, freezes.

16 Spirit of turpentine freezes.

20 The strongest kinds of wine freeze.

23 Hydro-fluoric acid freezes.

23 Coldest monthly mean temperature known for many years at Philadelphia.

25 Human blood freezes.

28 Vinegar freezes.

30 Milk freezes.

32 FREEZING POINT OF WATER. Ice melts.

36 Olive oil freezes.

40 Vegetable life awakens in the Spring, is suspended in the autumn.

From 40 to 140 comprises the range of vegetable temperatures.

52 Mean annual temperature at Philadelphia. Monthly temperature of April and October, and of water in wells, at Philadelphia.

59 Vinous fermentation commences. All vegetable processes in art, brewers, bakers, all decomposition and reorganization in Nature commence.

62 Is the temperature which is most suitable for churning butter of the best quality.

62 The favorite or most proper temperature of apartments.—Dr. Cullen.

68 The most proper temperature of apartments—Dr. Physick.

70 Best point of temperature for brewers, and fermentation of bread.

76 Mean annual temperature at the Tropics.

77 Vinous fermentation is rapid. Vegetation and vegetable decomposition rapid. Acetous fermentation begins.

- 80 Greatest monthly mean temperature ever known at Philadelphia. This was July, in the hot and dry summer of 1838. It is stated that the yellow fever has never occurred at Philadelphia, unless after a continuous average heat of $79\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ for three weeks. This degree of heat is esteemed necessary to its production, and occurs only in seasons of great drought and heat.
- 88 Acetification ceases. According to other authorities it is said to continue seven degrees higher, up to 95.
- 88 Mean annual temperature at the Equator.
- 96 to 100 Animal temperature in all climates. Warm blooded animals, coldest temperature 70, warmest, 112.
- 97 Lard melts.
- 98 Ether boils.
- 100 Phosphorus melts.
- 112 Fever heat. This temperature (of the body), produces death in all the warm-blooded animals.
- 112 Spermaceti melts.
- 120 Heat of the Summer sun's light at Philadelphia.
- 120 Oxidation of lead. White lead works.
- 120 Bleaching temperatures commence, terminating at 212.
- 122 Phosphorus burns.
- 124 to 126 Greatest heat at which De La Roche and Berger existed for a few minutes in watery vapor.
- 127 Tallow melts.
- 140 Liquid ammonia boils.
- 140 Greatest heat of the vertical sunlight on the Equator. This temperature is the greatest natural atmospheric temperature which exists, and, when they are fully exposed to it, is sufficient to cause the death of all animals in a comparatively short time.
- 145 Camphor sublimes.
- 145 Ambergris melts.
- 165 Albumen coagulates—eggs are cooked.
- 170 Sulphur evaporates.
- 176 Alcohol boils.
- 201 Rose's Metal melts. 8 parts bismuth, 5 parts lead, 3 parts tin.
- 211 Newton's metal melts. 4 parts bismuth, 2 parts lead, 3 parts tin.
- 210 Young man remained in a stove for twenty minutes.—Dobson's Experiments, Liverpool.
- 212 Water boils, and watery compounds boil. As a general rule the dissolving of anything in water increases the temperature required to produce boiling.
- 218 Water saturated with salt boils.
- 226 Sulphur melts.
- 230 Saturated solution of muriate of lime, (chloride of calcium), boils.
- 230 Water saturated with sugar—syrup of sugar boils.
- 242 Nitric acid boils.
- 240 to 260 Dr. Blagden at Liverpool sustained this temperature eight minutes.
- 264 A baker's daughter is said to have remained in an oven, thus heated, for twelve minutes.—Tillet and Duhamel, 1760.
- Camphor melts, and boils at 400.—Turner.
- 300 The surfaces of all furnaces, whether of iron, brick, or other material, designed for heating air for warming rooms, should never exceed this degree. Where they do, the purity and salubrity of the air is sensibly and seriously affected, a peculiar "baked" odor is imparted to it, so often the case in public assemblies, churches and private dwellings. To obviate this, furnaces or stoves should be of large size in propor-

- tion to the rooms to be warmed, a large quantity of air should be admitted in proportion to the fuel consumed, which will of course be the means of a more equable and moderate heat, and better ventilation.
- 303 Sulphur burns slowly. Heat of baking ovens may be readily determined by the ignition of sulphur.
- 320 Volatile oils boil generally as high as 320, many of them 100 degrees higher.
- 300 to 350 comprise the temperatures proper for baking vegetable substances—bread, pies, meat, fruits, &c. The heat of a baking oven may, with a little practice, be excellently well determined by the quick or slow ignition of a sulphur match tied to a stick and held in the centre of the oven.
- 397 Creosote boils.
- 442 Tin melts, most easily of the metals.
- 460 The surface of polished steel acquires a pale straw color, and takes a slight degree of “temper” when suddenly chilled.
- 476 Bismuth melts.
- 554 Phosphorus boils.
- 560 Spirit of turpentine boils.
- 570 Sulphur boils.
- 580 The surface of polished steel acquires a uniform deep blue color, and when suddenly chilled, takes a high “temper.”
- 590 Sulphuric acid boils.
- 600 Linseed oil boils.
- 612 Lead melts.
- 635 Iron begins to show light of ignition in the dark.
- 660 Mercury boils.
- 680 Zinc melts.
- 752 Iron bright red in the dark.
- 800 Hydrogen burns.
- 802 Charcoal burns.
- 809 Antimony melts.
- 884 Iron red hot in twilight.
- 980 Iron red heat.—Daniel.
- 1077 Iron visibly red in daylight.—Wedgwood.
- 1141 Heat of a common parlor fire.—Daniel.
- 1207 Iron blood red in daylight.—Wedgwood.
- 1257 Heat of an enameling furnace.
- 2897 The diamond burns.
- 3807 Brass melts, $\frac{2}{3}$ copper, $\frac{1}{3}$ zinc.
- 4587 Copper melts.
- 4717 Silver melts.
- 5247 Gold melts.
- For the higher furnace temperatures, we can offer no measurement but those of Wedgwood’s pyrometer, which is admitted to be far from a satisfactory one. A good pyrometer is a great desideratum in science.
- 8487 Working heat of plate glass.
- 10177 Flint glass furnace, lowest heat.
- 11737 Carbonization of iron—steel manufacture.
- 12257 Liverpool ware baked.
- 12777 Lowest welding heat of iron.
- 13427 Greatest welding heat of iron.
- 13297 to 15637 Common sorts of China ware and porcelain vitrified.
- 15897 Flint glass furnace, strongest heat.
- 17327 Greatest heat of a common smith’s forge.
- 17977 Cobalt melts.

- 20577 Nickel melts.
Hessian crucible fused.
- 21637 Iron melts.
- 21876 Manganese melts.
Best Chinese porcelain softened.
Nankin porcelain not softened.
- 23177 Platinum, molybdena, tungsten, and the more refractory of the metals, melt.
Titanium most difficult to melt.
- 25127 Greatest heat observed.

The above table presents a scale of temperatures designed to show the control of temperature over the phenomena of nature and of art, in their widest range, from the solidification of the gases, the freezing of mercury and water, to those delicate temperatures necessary to vegetable and animal life, existing on the landscape of Nature; and thence to those of the bleaching, boiling and baking temperatures, and the furnace heats, from the melting of tin and lead, to those of the carbonization and welding heats of iron, and the melting of the metals most difficult of fusion.

Persons who have not given attention to the subject, have no idea of the importance of certain precise temperatures to the best performance of many processes in the useful arts. A variation of five degrees will often not only render an operation ineffective, but partially or entirely destroy the materials employed. Certain temperatures are doubtless, in like manner, essential to all natural phenomena.

AMERICAN STATISTICS.

(From the National Gazette.)

A short time past we published some statistics relative to the number of soldiers supplied from the different States to the Revolutionary Army. De Bow's Commercial Review gives some tables relative to this and other subjects of equal interest, which we copy.

1. The number of soldiers furnished by the American States during the Revolution, and the population of each State in 1790 and in 1847.

2. Principal battles of the Revolution, their several dates, Commanders-in-chief, and losses on each side.

3. Amount of Continental money issued to support the war, and the estimated cost in specie.

4. States admitted into the Union since the organization of the Federal Government in 1789, the date of admission, and the population at first census thereafter, and in 1847.

5. Area of the several States, population to each square mile, and the number of enrolled militia in the Union, estimated to 1847.

1. Revolutionary States.

	Soldiers.	Pop. 1790.	1847.
New Hampshire	12,497	141,899	300,000
Massachusetts, (inc. Me.)	67,907	475,257	1,450,000
Rhode Island	5,908	69,110	130,000
Connecticut	31,959	238,141	330,000
New York	17,781	340,120	2,780,000
New Jersey	10,726	184,139	416,000
Pennsylvania	25,678	434,373	2,125,000
Delaware	2,386	59,098	80,000
Maryland	13,912	319,728	495,000

	Soldiers.	Pop. 1790.	1847.
Virginia	26,678	748,308	1,270,000
North Carolina	7,263	393,751	765,000
South Carolina	6,417	249,073	605,000
Georgia	2,589	82,548	800,000
Total	231,971	3,820,959	11,546,000

2. Battles of the Revolution.

Where and when fought.	Am. Com. and loss.	B. C. and loss.
Lexington, April 19, 1775	84	245
Bunker Hill, June 17, '75	Warren, 453	Howe, 1054
Flatbush, Aug. 12, '76	Putnam, 2000	Howe, 400
W. Plains, Oct. 28, '76	Washington, 300	Howe, 300
Trenton, Dec. 25, '76	Washington, 9	Rahl, 1000
Princeton, Jan. 3, '77	Washington, 100	Mawhood, 400
Bennington, Aug. 16, '77	Stark, 100	Baum, 600
Brandywine, Sep. 11, '77	Washington, 1200	Howe, 500
*Saratoga, Oct. 17, '77	Gates, 350	Burgoyne, 600
Monmouth, June 25, '78	Washington, 230	Clinton, 400
R. Island, Aug. 29, '78	Sullivan, 211	Pigott, 260
Briar Creek, M'h. 30, '79	Ash, 300	Prevost, 16
Stony Point, July 15, '79	Wayne, 100	Johnson, 600
Camden, Aug. 16, '81	Gates, 720	Cornwallis 375
Cowpens, Jan. 17, '81	Morgan, 72	Carlton, 800
Guilford, M'h. 25, '81	Greene, 400	Cornwallis, 523
Eut. Springs, Sep. 8, '81	Greene, 555	Stewart, 1000

The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1781, closed the war; prisoners 7,073.

3. Continental Money.

Amount issued in 1775,	\$2,000,000
“ “ “ 1777,	20,000,000
“ “ in all to July, 1779,	358,000,000

The whole expenses of the war, estimated in specie, amounted to \$135,-193,703.

4. States admitted since 1789.

	Date.	1st Census.	Population 1847.
Vermont,	1791	154,465	†303,000
Kentucky,	1792	220,955	855,000
Tennessee,	1793	105,602	950,000
Ohio,	1802	230,760	1,850,000
Louisiana,	1812	153,407	470,000
Indiana,	1815	147,178	950,000
Mississippi,	1816	75,448	600,000
Illinois,	1818	55,211	785,000
Alabama,	1819	127,901	600,000
Maine,	1820	298,335	600,000
Missouri,	1821	140,445	600,000
Arkansas,	1836	97,574	152,000
Michigan,	1836	212,267	370,000
Texas,	1845	†140,000	140,000

* 5,752 British taken prisoners.

† For 1847, the estimate is from the Report on Patents; total, 20,746,000.

	Date.	1st census.	Population.
Florida,	1845	75,000	75,000
Iowa,	1846	130,000	130,000
Wisconsin,	1848	215,000	215,000

5. Area and Militia of the States.

	Square Miles.	Pop. Sq. Miles.	Militia.
Maine,	32,400	15	47,352
New Hampshire,	9,500	30	34,476
Vermont,	9,700	30	28,538
Massachusetts,	7,800	95	92,215
Rhode Island,	1,251	87	15,955
Connecticut,	4,789	65	48,470
New York,	46,220	52	191,079
New Jersey,	7,948	47	40,170
Pennsylvania,	46,215	37	266,957
Delaware,	2,068	39	10,229
Maryland,	10,755	44	48,864
Virginia,	65,700	19	121,988
North Carolina,	51,632	15	65,218
South Carolina,	31,565	19	53,566
Georgia,	61,683	11	59,312
Alabama,	54,084	11	46,332
Mississippi,	49,356	1	38,084
Louisiana,	47,413	7	15,808
Arkansas,	54,617	2	4,028
Tennessee,	41,752	20	75,252
Kentucky,	40,020	20	81,278
Ohio,	40,500	38	190,258
Michigan,	60,537	4	13,768
Indiana,	35,626	19	55,913
Illinois,	56,506	9	86,234
Missouri,	70,050	5	62,689
Florida,	56,336	1	2,217
Texas,	100,000	1	—
Iowa,	173,786	1	—
Wisconsin,	92,930	2	10,223
Total,	1,262,842		1,821,093

This table does not represent truly the aid that Pennsylvania gave in the Revolution. The Bulletin explains the matter as follows: The number of soldiers furnished by Pennsylvania, is set down at 22,678, while Massachusetts with about the same population, is credited with 67,507. In one sense this is correct. Pennsylvania did furnish but 25,000 recruits, while Massachusetts sent 67,000. But there was this difference between the recruits; those from Pennsylvania were mostly enlisted for three years, or for the war; while those of Massachusetts generally entered the army but for nine months. Now, taking the Pennsylvania line at its lowest term of enlistment, we find it was renewed only once every three years, while, during this interval, the Massachusetts line was renewed four times, or once every nine months. In other words, the latter nominally furnished four men where the former furnished one: and this while having only the same number of soldiers in the field. At the end of the war, in making up a table of the recruits sent from each State, the quota of Massachusetts would seem to quadruple those of the other colonies, a most false and unwarrantable conclusion. A better way to arrive at the truth is to calculate the Pennsylvania line as if it also had been renewed every nine months, in which

case the recruits would have been just four times as great, or 100,000 men. Allowing that a portion of the quota of Massachusetts was enlisted for three years, or for the war, we are justified in concluding that the real force supplied by Massachusetts did not exceed even if it equalled that furnished by Pennsylvania.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement of the debt of the United States on 4th March, 1845, amount since paid, and the balance of the debt remaining unpaid which was due on 4th of March, 1845, and the debt incurred since up to 20th June, 1848.

	Debt March 4, 1845.	Paid to June 20, 1848.	Balance unpaid June 20, 1848.
Principal and interest of old funded and unfunded debt	\$176,450 55	\$57,263 40	\$119,187 15
Treasury Notes issued during the war of 1812	4,317 44	—————	4,317 44
Certificate of Mississippi Stock	4,320 09	—————	4,320 09
Debt of the corporate cities of the District of Columbia, 5½ per cent., per act of May 20, 1836, payable \$60,000 per annum	1,200,000 00	180,000 00	1,020,000 00
Outstanding Treasury Notes of the issues of 1837 to 1843	1,244,779 22	1,077,389 91*	167,389 31
Treasury Notes issued prior to 22d July, 1846, funded under act of Jan. 28, 1847, section 14, payable Dec. 31, 1847	—————	—————	128,720 00
Loan of July 21, 1841, payable December 31, 1847	210,814 94	210,814 94	—————
Loan of April 15, 1842, 6 per cent., payable December 31, 1862	8,343,886 03†	—————	8,279,382 06
Loan of March 3, 1843, 5 per cent., payable July 1, 1853	6,604,231 35	—————	6,604,231 35
Total	\$17,788,799 62	\$1,525,468 25	\$16,327,559 37

Debt incurred since March 4, 1845.

Loan of 22d July, 1846, at 6 per cent., payable November 12, 1856	\$4,999,149 45
Loan of 25th January, 1847, payable December 31, 1847	12,880,272 00
Stock issued in payments of the 4th and 5th instalments of the Mexican indemnity, at 5 per cent., per act 10th August, 1846, payable after 9th August, 1851	303,391 04
Stock issued in payment of military bounty lands, at 6 per cent., per act of February 11, 1847, payable at pleasure of the Government	147,500 00

* Included in this sum is \$126,728 for the reimbursement of Notes funded.

† By the act of 27th June, 1846, sec. 2, the sum of \$64,500 was cancelled of the Loan of 15th of April, 1842.

Outstanding Treasury Notes of the issue of July 22, 1846	409,800 00	
Outstanding Treasury Notes of the issue of Jan. 28, 1847	13,128,650 00	
		31,868,762, 49
Total		\$48,196,321 86

DANIEL GRAHAM, Register.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, June 21, 1848.

The above sum of \$48,196,321 86 is the aggregate amount of the Public Debt recorded in this office. Of that amount \$31,868,762 49 (see above) has been incurred since the 1st July, 1846. There remains to be paid into the Treasury, under the act of 22d July, 1846, 28th January, 1847, and 31st of March, 1848, \$17,582,128 55—making together, if the whole should be paid, the sum of \$59,450,891 04, which may be estimated as the war debt as provided for by estimate up to 30th June, 1849.

Statement of the public debt, March 4, 1841.

Principal and interest of the old funded and unfunded debt,	\$324,521 15
Treasury Notes of 1812-14,	4,795 00
Mississippi Stock Certificates,	4,320 09
Debt of the corporate cities in the District of Columbia, as- sessed by Congress,	1,440,000 00
Treasury Notes of 1837 to 1840	5,680,831 40
Total,	\$7,454,467 64

PUBLIC LANDS.

(From the last Report of the Land Commissioner.)

The amount and disposition of the public lands of the United States is a subject of deep interest to the country.

During the year 1846, 2,263,730 acres were sold, amounting to \$2,904,637. In the 1st, 2d, and 3d quarters of 1847, 1,839,026 acres were sold, producing \$2,366,352. The following is

A STATEMENT OF PUBLIC LANDS—of incidental Expenses, and of payments into the Treasury, for the 1st, 2d, and 3d quarters of 1847.

States.	Lands sold after deducting erroneous entries.		Amount of incidental expenses. 1st and 2d quarters.	Amount paid into the treasury during the 1st and 2d quarters of the year.	Amount of incidental expenses. 3d quarter	Amount paid into the treasury during the 3d quarter of the year.
	Acres. 1st and 2d quarters.	Acres. 3d quarter.				
Ohio - - -	42,060.69	25,480.94	\$3,135 11	\$50,859 11	\$1,869 95	\$56,222 01
Indiana - -	71,847.10	72,360.68	6,256 28	60,656 54	5,992 47	132,526 91
Illinois - -	271,674.51	121,230.51	16,417 94	334,972 67	7,781 75	175,214 74
Missouri - -	102,856.18	68,459.05	9,760 01	189,334 66	6,154 61	50,879 92
Alabama - -	58,738.42	38,294.70	6,554 60	70,265 13	3,476 15	56,777 77
Mississippi -	30,728.85	9,169.71	3,863 77	25,660 55	1,639 00	1,344 86
Louisiana - -	47,055.56	26,161.69	6,201 10	50,081 38	3,415 38	19,851 20
Michigan - -	26,566.29	15,645.57	3,369 19	28,727 40	1,599 65	18,475 87
Arkansas - -	46,993.28	31,667.69	6,571 82	60,293 93	3,567 03	32,267 75
Florida - - -	15,567.95	5,683.55	2,276 03	12,187 02	1,351 05	12,548 90
Iowa - - -	134,275.59	83,654.87	7,867 45	195,658 07	4,794 92	102,653 57
Wisconsin Tr.	262,710.98	230,139.75	10,410 18	362,105 12	8,154 73	238,119 97
Grand total	1,111,075.40	727,948.81	82,683 48	1,440,801 58	49,796 59	896,883 47

The following is an estimate of the public domain, Nov. 30, 1847.

Statement showing the entire area of each State and Territory, the number of acres surveyed, the number under contract and in process of being surveyed, and the number not yet surveyed or contracted for, in each.

State or Territory.	Estimated entire area.	Number of acres surveyed.	Estimated number of acres under contract and in process of being surveyed.	Estimated number of acres not yet surveyed or contracted for.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ohio - - - -	25,361,593	25,361,593	None.	None.
Indiana - - - -	23,411,431	23,411,431	None.	None.
Michigan - - - -	38,426,294	27,697,906	300,000	10,428,388
Iowa - - - -	16,913,972	12,803,351	1,730,000	2,380,621
Wisconsin - - - -	47,175,292	12,455,825	1,500,000	33,219,467
Illinois - - - -	35,235,209	35,235,209	None.	Some detached tracts.
Missouri - - - -	43,169,028	39,838,171	650,000	2,680,857
Arkansas - - - -	33,086,548	31,565,908	1,200,000	320,640
Mississippi - - - -	30,153,054	30,153,054	None.	Some retracing.
Louisiana - - - -	28,297,602	19,906,897	325,000	8,065,705
Alabama - - - -	32,499,872	32,465,746	{ Some re- tracing. }	34,126
Florida - - - -	34,423,055	13,106,045	1,650,000	19,667,010
Northwest Territory east of Rocky mountains and west of Mississippi river, exclusive of ceded lands in Iowa	478,549,708	None.	None.	478,549,708
Northwest Territory west of Rocky mountains - -	218,536,320	None.	None.	218,536,320
Emigrant Indian lands west of Missouri and Arkansas	132,295,680	None.	None.	132,295,680

By the President's Message of the 24th July, 1848, it appears that the Commissioner of the Land Office estimates the country ceded to the United States by the late Treaty with Mexico, lying west of the Rio Grande, and to which Texas has no title, to contain 526,098 square miles, or 366,609,920 acres, and with prudent management will sell for more than the cost of the war.

SQUARE MILES OF TERRITORY—NORTH AND SOUTH OF 36-30.

The following important statistics were recently laid before the House of Representatives from the War Department and Land Office.

	N. of 36-30. sq. miles.	S. of 36-30. sq. miles.	Total. sq. miles.	Total. acres.
Oregon Territory . .	341,463	—	341,463	218,536,320
Territory N. W. of the Mississippi	723,248	—	723,248	462,878,720
N. W. Territory, N. W. of Ohio, remaining .	22,336	—	22,336	14,295,040
Indian Territory W. of Missouri & Arkansas	190,505	58,346	248,851	159,264,640
California	287,797	160,894	448,691	287,162,240
New Mexico	33,898	43,489	77,387	49,527,680
	<u>1,599,247</u>	<u>262,729</u>	<u>1,861,976</u>	<u>1,191,664,640</u>

SURFACE OF TEXAS.

N. of Ensenada and Paso	43,537	81,396	124,933	79,957,120
W. of Nueces and S. of Paso	—	52,018	52,018	33,291,520
E. of Nueces and S. of Ensenada River	—	148,569	148,569	95,084,160
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	43,537	281,983	325,520	208,322,800

ARMY STATISTICS—PEACE ESTABLISHMENT.

The President, in a message to Congress of the 1st August, 1848, makes the following statement:—

“I communicate herewith a report from the Secretary of War, containing the information called for by a resolution of the House of Representatives of the 17th July, 1848, in relation to the number of Indians in Oregon, California, and New Mexico, the number of military posts, the number of troops which would be required in each, and the whole military force which should constitute the peace establishment.

“I have seen no reason to change the opinion expressed in my message to Congress of the 6th July, 1848, transmitting the treaty of peace with Mexico, that ‘the old army, as it existed before the commencement of the war with Mexico—especially if authority be given to fill up the rank and file of the several corps to the maximum number authorized during the war—will be sufficient force to be retained in service during a period of peace.’

“The old army consists of fifteen regiments. By the act of the 13th May, 1846, the President was authorized, by voluntary enlistment, to increase the number of privates in each or any of the companies of the existing regiments of dragoons, artillery and infantry, to any number not exceeding one hundred, and to reduce the same to sixty-four when the exigencies requiring the present increase shall cease. Should this act remain in force, the maximum number of the rank and file of the army authorized by it would be over 16,000 men, exclusive of officers. Should the authority conferred by this act be continued, it would depend on the exigencies of the service whether the number of the rank and file should be increased; and if so, to what amount beyond the maximum number of sixty-four privates to a company.

“Allowing sixty-four privates to a company, the army would be over 10,000 men, exclusive of officers—a number which it is believed will be sufficient; but, as a precautionary measure, it is deemed expedient that the Executive should possess the power of increasing the strength of the respective corps, should the exigencies of the service require it. Should they not call for such increase, the discretionary power given by the act to the President will not be exercised. It will be seen by the reports of the Secretary of War, that a portion of the forces will be employed in Oregon, New Mexico, and Upper California, a portion for the protection of the Texan frontier adjoining the Mexican possessions, and bordering on the territory occupied by the Indian tribes within her limits. After detailing the force necessary for these objects, it is believed a sufficient number of troops will remain to afford security and protection to our Indian frontier in the west and north-west, and to occupy, with sufficient garrisons, the posts on our northern and Atlantic borders.

“I have no reason, at present, to believe that any increase of the number of regiments or corps will be required during the period of peace.”

Note.—According to an official statement from the Secretary of War, and

Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the number of Indians in Oregon, New Mexico and California are 72,139.

In Oregon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23,309
Upper California	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16,930
New Mexico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31,900

The report of the Secretary of War on the military posts, and the force required, is as follows:—

“Nothing is known of military posts which it is expedient to establish. It is proposed, however, to establish three or four in Oregon, one at the mouth of the Columbia river, one in the immediate vicinity of the principal settlement, which is in the Willamette valley, and perhaps another between the latter and the Rocky Mountains, on the most travelled route from the United States. It is estimated that 1,000 men will constitute an adequate garrison for the protection of this territory; to wit:—four companies of cavalry, two of artillery, and five of infantry, filled up to about 100 privates to a company.

“In California it will be necessary to establish posts at San Diego, Monterey, San Francisco, Pueblo de los Angeles, and San Luis Rey. It will be proper to have a post, perhaps two, on the Gila river, if it shall be ascertained that a route along this river is the most direct and practicable way for transmitting troops into California. At present there are scarcely any settlements in the country, on either side of the river, at any considerable distance from its entrance into the Colorado of the west, and it is not therefore deemed necessary to have more than one or two posts on it, and at these a large force will not be required. A force not exceeding 1500 or 1800 men will be sufficient for the protection of California, and the frontier on the Gila river up to New Mexico. This force should be composed of six companies of dragoons, two or three of artillery, and the remainder of infantry.

“For the protection of New Mexico it is believed that not more than three or four posts will be required. The principal one will be at Santa Fe, and the others at Albuquerque and Sacono.

“As connected with the defence of New Mexico, it is believed that a post ought to be established on the east side of the Rio Grande, in Texas, nearly opposite to El Paso. It is estimated that nearly 1200 men will constitute an adequate garrison for these posts.

“For the protection of the Lower Rio Grande and the Texan frontier, I estimate that a force of 1500 men will be required.

“I have brought into view all the new posts and lines of defence which require to be garrisoned and guarded, in consequence of the change in our territorial condition, and estimate that almost 5000 men will be required for that purpose. The remainder of the force will be required for the Atlantic and Gulf coast on the Indian and northern frontier, and on the route to Oregon and New Mexico, where three or four posts may be required. In regard to the forces to be sent to Oregon, California and New Mexico, I would respectfully recommend that the companies should be raised to the maximum, if authority should be given to raise them to one hundred privates in each. This recommendation is in consideration of the casualties which happen, and the difficulty in filling up the regiments on distant service. In this event there would be left nearly as large a force for the protection of the Atlantic coast, the northern and Indian frontiers, and the route to Oregon and New Mexico, as the whole military force of the United States before the commencement of the war with Mexico, even if the number of privates in the companies for this service should not be raised above sixty-four.”

THE ARMY—ITS SITUATION AND MOVEMENTS.

Owing to circumstances which it was impossible to foresee, the general orders for the disposition of the army have, in some cases, been countermanded or altered, but the following statement is believed to be correct:—

1st and 2d Artillery,	ordered to Governor's Island, New York.
2d and 4th " "	" Fort Munroe, Virginia.
Three companies 1st Drag.,	" Jefferson Barracks, Missouri.
Seven companies 2d " "	" Pascagonia, Mississippi.
Third Dragoons,	" Jefferson Barracks, Missouri.
1st, 3d, 4th and 5th Infantry,	" Pascagonia, Miss.
2d Infantry, Jefferson Barracks,	<i>en route</i> to California.
6th, 7th and 8th Infantry,	ordered to Jefferson Barracks.
1st company 3d Art., and 1st do. Drag.,	from Rio Grande to New Mexico.
8 companies of Artillery to take post on the left bank of the Rio Grande.	
9th Infantry,	ordered to Fort Adams, Newport, Rhode Island.
10th and 11th Infantry,	ordered to Fort Hamilton, near New York.
12th Infantry	are being mustered out of service at New Orleans.
13th Infantry	have been mustered out of service at Mobile, Alabama.
14th " " " "	" New Orleans.
15th " " " "	" Cincinnati.
16th " "	ordered to Newport, Kentucky.
Volteguers,	" Fort M'Henry, near Baltimore, Maryland.
Sappers and Miners,	ordered to New York Harbor.
Massachusetts Volunteers,	ordered to Boston, Mass., by land.
N. York and N. Jersey Volunteers,	ordered to Fort Hamilton, N. Y., by sea.
Pennsylvania Volunteers,	sent home to Pittsburg and Philadelphia.
Virginia " " "	Fort Monroe, Virginia.
North Carolina " " "	Smithsville, North Carolina.
South Carolina Volunteers	have been mustered out at Mobile, Alabama.
Michigan Volunteers,	sent to Detroit, Michigan.
Georgia, Alabama, and Livingston's Pa. Volunteers,	sent to Mobile, Ala.
Mississippi Volunteers,	mustered out at Vicksburg, Mississippi.
Wisconsin Volunteers,	ordered to Fort Crawford, Wisconsin.
Iowa Volunteers,	" Fort Atkinson, Iowa.
Missouri Volunteers,	" Independence, Missouri.
Illinois Volunteers,	" Alton, Ill.
Louisiana Volunteers,	mustered out at New Orleans.

STATISTICS OF THE WAR.

The New Orleans Bulletin of the 21st has the following:—

The whole number of Americans that were killed in the recent war, including the line of the Rio Grande and that of Vera Cruz, is estimated at 2000, and the wounded at 4000. It is impossible to say how many of the latter have died in consequence of their wounds, but we should suppose not less than one-fourth—say 1000—making in all 3000 deaths from battle.

This, however, bears but a small proportion to the number who have sunk under disease.

We state, under the authority of several officers of rank, that, on the left flank of the Castle of Perote, there are 600 American graves, all victims of disease.

A still larger number perished at the capital: the deaths there, for a considerable time, were *one thousand monthly*; and we learn that at no time did they fall below from three to four hundred.

The first Mississippi regiment that went out to the Rio Grande buried 135 on the banks of that river before it ever went into battle, and finally brought back less than one-third of their number. They suffered dreadfully at Buena Vista.

The first and second Pennsylvania regiments, recently returned, went out 1800 strong (900 each), and brought home about 600 of their original number; about 220 fell in battle, nearly 400 died, and about 600 were discharged as unfit for duty; how many of the latter have since died is, of course, unknown.

The third and fourth Tennessee regiments, also recently returned, lost 360 by death. Neither of these regiments have been in action.

Capt. Naylor, of Pennsylvania, took down a company of 104 men; he brought back *seventeen*. He entered the battle of Contreras with 33 men; he brought 19 out of it.

The most frightful instance of mortality, however, that we have heard of, was in that gallant corps, the Georgia battalion, commanded by a gallant and accomplished officer, Col. Seymour. They were considered acclimated, and actually suffered much less whilst in the lower country than when marched into the interior, on the high land. The battalion went to Mexico 419 strong; about 220 actually died; a large number were discharged with broken down, ruined constitutions, and many of them, no doubt, have since gone to their graves; and the battalion was reduced to *thirty-four* men fit for duty! On one parade, when a certain company was called that had mustered upwards of 100 men, a *single private* answered to the call, and was its sole living representative! The captain, the three lieutenants, the four sergeants, and the four corporals (every commissioned and non-commissioned officer) were *dead!*

We have heard, from officers of many other regiments, details very similar to those we have given above, which may be taken as about the fair average losses for all the volunteer regiments. The regulars did not suffer to the same extent.

TARIFFS OF 1842 AND 1846.

We gave in our last number a comparative list of the duties established by the Tariffs. We now give the results of the operations of the two systems, with the value of merchandize remaining in warehouses.

The statement is derived from the Philadelphia Ledger of the 16th August, and is accompanied with the remark that it is "gathered from official sources not before made public."

The following tables exhibit the comparative value of the receipts into the Treasury under the tariffs of 1842 and 1846 respectively:—

Receipts during the 3d quarter of 1842	were	\$6,281,659	18;	one-third of which is -	\$2,093,886	39
4th quarter of 1842		3,927,137	81			
1st do 1843		2,940,804	16			
2d do 1843		4,106,039	75			
					13,067,868	11
3d do 1843		6,132,272	09			
4th do 1843		3,881,993	47			
1st do 1844		7,675,366	40			
2d do 1844		8,493,938	98			
					26,183,570	94
3d do 1844		10,873,718	04			
4th do 1844		4,067,445	15			
1st do 1845		6,385,558	83			
2d do 1845		6,201,390	68			
					27,528,112	70

3d quarter of 1845	\$8,861,932 14	
4th do 1845	4,192,790 77	
1st do 1846	7,357,192 51	
2d do 1846	6,300,752 45	
	<hr/>	26,712,667 87
3d do 1846	6,153,826 58	
4th Oct. & Nov. do.	2,227,461 48	
	<hr/>	8,581,288 06

Total value \$102,573,307 68

The tariff of 1846 went into operation on the 1st December, 1846, and since that period up to the 30th June, 1848, the following have been the receipts:—

Receipts during the 4th quarter of 1846,	\$3,641,192 22	
Deduct Oct. & Nov., 1846	2,427,461 48	
	<hr/>	1,213,730 74
1st quarter of 1847	6,319,041 48	
2d do 1847	7,633,804 38	
	<hr/>	13,952,845 86
3d do 1847	11,106,257 41	
4th do 1847	5,379,152 74	
1st do 1848	9,383,092 92	
2d do 1848	5,888,567 89	
	<hr/>	31,757,070 96

Total value - - - - - \$46,923,647 56

The tariff of 1842 brought into the Treasury, during its operation of 51 months, per month, \$2,001,441 32.

The tariff of 1846 brought into the Treasury during its operation, from Dec. 1st, 1846, to 30th June, 1848, a period of nineteen months, per month, \$2,469,665 65; thus showing a balance in favor of the present tariff of 1846 of \$468,224 33 per month.

The value of goods remaining in warehouses (bonded) on the 31st Dec., 1847, was \$4,853,591—upon which the duties amount to \$1,524,887 16. As usual, New York claims nearly half the goods warehoused. The following shows the principal places where the goods are stored:

New York	-	-	-	\$2,173,504
Boston	-	-	-	913,888
Philadelphia	-	-	-	1,118,571
Baltimore	-	-	-	90,229
New Orleans	-	-	-	296,112
Charleston	-	-	-	76,067
Other districts	-	-	-	185,220
				<hr/>
				\$4,853,591

(From the Tribune.)

SPECIE.

The movement of specie to and from the United States has, in the past four years, been as follows:

Import of Specie into the United States.

	Gold—1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Hanse Towns - - -	\$237,804		43	
England - - - -	14,308,358	100,547	428,095	19,322,627
British West Indies	128,105	27,639	37,594	107,872
British N. A. Col's.	26,145	52,642	63,879	191,698

	Gold—1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
France - - - - -	1,886,678	112,613	5,731	1,116,719
Cuba - - - - -	241,245	180,816	173,538	259,982
Mexico - - - - -	3,052	13,622	4,460	669
Brazil - - - - -	226,780	623	1,462	17,964
Other places - - - -	7,345	330,348	200,511	157,427
Total - - - - -	\$16,964,602	818,850	910,313	21,175,950
Export - - - - -	290,818	2,210,979	1,629,348	905,301
Excess export	430,188	1,392,129	719,036	
“ import	16,665,704			20,199,600
<i>Silver</i>				
Hanse Towns - - - -	\$47,463		100	
England - - - - -	96,594	80,281	59,616	139,377
British West Indies -	516,920	222,101	295,287	466,248
“ N. A. Col's. - - -	377,400	861,819	559,164	671,753
France - - - - -	712,192	24,632	102,977	136,787
Cuba - - - - -	413,524	347,352	336,450	119,175
Mexico - - - - -	2,137,295	947,285	694,093	326,539
Brazil - - - - -	47,064	6,862	1,070	7,331
Other places - - - -	763,262	761,070	818,562	648,225
Total - - - - -	\$5,111,699	3,251,392	2,867,119	2,513,435
Export - - - - -	1,113,104	6,397,516	2,275,920	931,723
Excess export -	129,432	3,144,124		
“ import -	3,983,562		591,499	1,581,712

The following Table shows the annual import from the four chief countries of supply, and also the aggregate import from all countries:

Import of Specie into the United States for 27 years.

	England.	Mexico.	France.	Cuba.	Total.
1821	645,529		964,658	1,163,258	3,064,890
1822	99,811		91,902	590,169	3,369,846
1823	282,822		139,309	271,764	5,097,896
1824	149,164	308,109	124,943	1,102,345	8,399,905
1825	22,888	2,603,103	24,646	545,164	6,150,765
1826	122,216	2,860,409	193,069	408,506	6,880,956
1827	33,111	4,005,955	164,347	478,590	8,157,030
1828	20,902	3,853,880	60,043	578,528	7,789,740
1829	39,826	4,343,746	20,052	363,820	4,703,612
1830	144,231	4,703,746	62,229	362,082	8,152,964
1831	130,830	4,464,434	54,904	181,774	7,305,945
1832	83,639	3,626,704	20,967	92,065	5,907,504
1833	31,963	4,477,287	60,233	93,869	6,524,261
1834	5,821,256	6,927,254	1,656,408	601,031	16,203,550
1835	1,303,438	8,343,181	550,012	266,356	13,131,447
1836	2,322,920	4,537,418	4,841,004	112,518	13,400,881
1837	116,299	4,730,988	1,054,503	1,648,110	10,471,414
1838	9,009,277	2,689,455	5,240,312	406,624	17,747,116
1839	1,420,092	2,273,548	150,129	201,314	5,595,176
1840	303,406	3,458,892	1,129,249	548,163	8,882,813
1841	580,500	1,938,083	267,848	134,909	4,988,733
1842	205,930	1,342,907	232,410	235,740	4,087,016
1843	14,305,952	2,106,663	2,641,057	655,205	22,320,305
1844	1,131,909	1,780,269	693,192	166,986	4,830,429
1845	180,848	960,957	134,245	528,168	3,070,242
1846	723,771	699,553	108,708	509,988	3,777,732
1847	19,462,004	327,208	1,253,506	379,150	24,121,289

STATISTICS OF THE PENNSYLVANIA HOSPITAL.

The number of patients admitted within the year has been 478 pay, 1068 poor; total, 1546. Total number under treatment, 1681; number of patients discharged, 1524; number of patients remaining, 157; average number of pay patients for the year, 33; average number of poor patients, 109; total average, 142. Average time each patient was under treatment was 30.70 days. Average cost per week of each patient, \$2.55.

Of the 1546 patients admitted, there were—

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Infants born in the Hospital - - - - -	31	26	57
Under 18 years of age - - - - -	121	43	164
Unmarried adults - - - - -	713	139	852
Married " - - - - -	265	114	379
Widows and widowers - - - - -	52	40	92
Unknown - - - - -	1	1	2
Total - - - - -	1183	363	1546

Nativity of Patients.—Born in the United States, 627; Canada, 2; Nova Scotia, 3; West Indies, 1; England, 69; Scotland, 23; Wales, 4; Ireland, 702; Germany, 64; France, 14; Spain, 1; Portugal, 2; Italy, 4; Switzerland, 1; Norway, 3; Sweden, 10; Denmark, 1; Prussia, 2; Poland, 1; Finland, 1; Austria, 1; Holland, 1; Madeira, 1; South America, 4; New Holland, 1; Africa, 1; Unknown, 2. Total, 1546.

The number of patients treated and maintained wholly at the expense of the institution, the past year, has been 1163; which is an increase of 126 over last year, and of 285 over any previous year since the establishment of the Hospital.

Since the last annual report, the west wing of the Hospital, which was formerly the insane department, has been thoroughly remodeled, so as to accommodate the female medical and surgical patients; and it will compare favorably, in point of comfort and convenience, with any similar establishment in the country, or perhaps in the world; but, in consequence of the limited resources of the institution, not more than half of each ward has been occupied, although suitable cases—enough to have filled the wing—have presented themselves: it will, however, be seen that there has been an increase of 75 female patients over those of last year, and an increase of patients of all classes of 290.

The room which now contains the medical library having become inadequate for its accommodation, the large front room in the second story of the centre building, 61 feet long by 23 wide, formerly occupied as the female medical ward, has been handsomely fitted up for its reception; the expense of which has been defrayed out of the "medical fund," arising from the sale of tickets of attendance on the practice of the house to medical students, and which, for many years, has been appropriated to the increase of the library. The managers of the Hospital will also hold their meetings in this room.

The whole number of patients admitted into the Hospital from its establishment, in 1752, to fourth month 22, 1848, has been 45,884; of whom 26,101 were poor people, maintained and treated at the expense of the institution.

Of the above 45,884 patients there have been

Cured - - - - -	28,862
Relieved - - - - -	5,255
Removed by friends, or at their request - - - - -	3,563
Discharged as disorderly, or eloped - - - - -	1,192
Pregnant women delivered safely - - - - -	1,128
Infants born in the Hospital, and discharged in health - - - - -	1,053
Died - - - - -	4,674
Remaining, 4th month 22, 1848 - - - - -	157

45,884

NEW YORK STATE LUNATIC ASYLUM.

The Rochester Advertiser gives a synopsis of the Annual Report of the Managers of the State Lunatic Asylum, recently laid before the Legislature, which we copy below :

The Report states that there are 380 single rooms for patients; 24 for their attendants; 20 associated dormitories; 16 parlors; 12 dining rooms; 24 washing rooms; 24 clothes rooms. The farm attached has 133 acres—and, excepting one head gardener, it is all cultivated by the insane. The whole amount expended has been (from the commencement) \$143,000,—\$2 per week is the price for the public patients, and from \$2,50 to \$4 per week for *pay* patients.

At the close of the last year the number of patients in the Asylum was :

	Total.	Men.	Women.
Admitted during the year,	374	177	187
	428	219	209
Total number in the course of the year	802	406	396

Of this number there have been :

	Total.	Men.	Women.
Discharged, recovered	187	102	85
“ improved	70	33	37
“ unimproved	25	13	12
Died	48	27	21

Total discharges for the year 330 175 155

Remaining in the Asylum, Nov. 30, 1847 472 231 241

The following table exhibits the season of the year when the patients are supposed to have been attacked with insanity, showing that more of them have become so in the month of May than in any other month :

January	106	July	126
February	100	August	122
March	146	September	133
April	119	October	153
May	155	November	115
June	146	December	101

Among the male inmates there are 346 farmers, 49 merchants, 44 scholars, and 17 attorneys, 1 military officer, and 1 editor. Among the females there are 40 school girls, 34 milliners, and 11 mantua makers. Of the total number, 746 were married; 760 single, 70 widows, and 33 widowers. Of the supposed causes of derangement, the following table is given :

	Men.	Women.
Ill-health	112	186
Loss of property	50	22
Excessive study	34	6
Intemperance	47	3
<i>Disappointment in love</i>	13	16
<i>Abuse of husband</i>		24
Want of occupation		2
Neighborhood difficulty	1	
Excessive use of snuff		1
Lawsuit		1

By that part of the report touching the regulations of the Institution, we perceive that the attendants are required, if they receive insult and abusive lan-

guage to keep cool, forbear to recriminate, threaten or dictate in the language of authority. Violent hands are never to be laid on a patient under any provocation. A blow is never to be returned.

The report states as a singular fact that in the past year, by a table accurately kept, it is ascertained that there have been an unusual number of murders in the State, and especially in the city of New York—*double the number* that occurred in 1846. *None* in the four northern counties.

STATISTICS OF PAUPERISM, CRIME, AND IGNORANCE.

The population of Sweden amounts to about 3,500,000 souls, and has only 3 mendicants in every 400 persons; while in Norway they reckon 5 out of every 100; Denmark 4; in Wirtemberg 5; in Switzerland 10; in Italy 13; in France 15; and in the British islands collectively, 17; although in England separately there are only 10. In France, the number of foundlings supported at the expense of the state was, in 1844, 123,394, demanding an annual outlay of 6,707,829*f.* 12*c.*, or 54*f.* 6*c.* a head. In Paris the charitable establishments afford relief to 95,000 paupers. At Berlin the number of mendicants has become doubled between 1822 and 1846; the number of families in that capital supported by charity has increased from 2,990 to 3,445. In London it is computed that there are 25,000 persons who daily practice mendicity or robbery.

It is stated in the Reformer, a French Journal, that in France out of a population of about thirty-three millions, there are now 4,000,000 persons clothed in rags; 20,000,000 who never wear shoes; 182,000 who never eat wheaten bread; 27,000,000 who cannot get wine to drink—not drugged, as here—31,000 too poor to afford sugar; 31,000,000 forced to abstain from the use of meat.

The following account of crime and ignorance in London is from the correspondent of the National Intelligencer.

London is a wonderful aggregated mass of mankind, and must be supposed to contain a full proportion of their folly and wickedness; but when the police returns inform us that in the year 1847 sixty-two thousand persons were taken into custody in the metropolis for crimes and offences of all sorts, we are struck with the melancholy fact that this is very little less than one out of every thirty-two of the entire population. Out of this number, probably, about one-half were discharged, that being the proportion of the preceding year, whilst only about five thousand would be committed for trial. It is a gratifying circumstance that crime appears to have been gradually on the decrease in London since the establishment of the new police. In 1832 the number of persons taken into custody was 77,543; in 1836, 63,384; in 1846, 62,834; and last year 62,000, of whom 41,500 were males, and 20,500 females. The charges of drunkenness have materially decreased. In 1831 the number was 23,788, whilst in 1846 it was only 17,563. We wish we could say that ignorance, the parent of crime, was proportionally decreasing, but the appalling fact is on record that out of the 41,500 males taken into custody last year, 13,000 were totally ignorant of even the rudiments of learning, and that only 150 could read and write well. Of the 20,500 women taken into custody, 9,000 could neither read nor write, and only 14 could read and write well.

DEBT OF FIVE EUROPEAN NATIONS.

The following is from an exchange paper, and it shows the indebtedness, the population and revenue of five principal governments of Europe.

ENGLAND.—Debt, \$4,000,000,000.

Revenue, \$200,000,000.

Population, 28,000,000.

Making a debt thirteen times greater than the revenue, and an indebtedness equal to about \$142 to every man, woman and child of her population.

FRANCE.—Debt, \$780,000,000.

Revenue, \$192,000,000.

Population, 35,000,000.

Making a debt four times greater than her revenue, and equal to \$22 to each individual of her population.

RUSSIA.—Debt, \$300,000,000.

Revenue, \$86,000,000.

Population, 50,000,000.

Debt over three times her revenue, and \$6 to every soul.

AUSTRIA.—Debt, \$300,000,000.

Revenue, \$100,000,000.

Population, 37,000,000.

Debt three times over her revenue, and \$9 to every soul.

PRUSSIA.—Debt, \$100,000,000.

Revenue, \$40,000,000.

Population, 15,000,000.

Making a debt twice and a half over her revenue, and \$7 to each soul.

RELIGIOUS INTELLIGENCE.

RECEIPTS OF ENGLISH RELIGIOUS AND BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

A table is here presented of the respective incomes of the various benevolent and religious societies of England, collected from the last annual reports, and calculated upon an average of the last three years.

British and Foreign Bible Society	\$517,000
Church Missionary Society	522,000
Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts	457,000
Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge	405,000
Society for Building and Repairing Churches	108,000
Church Pastoral Aid Society	202,000
British and Foreign School Society	67,000
Religious Tract Society	256,000
Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society	522,000
London Missionary Society	337,000
Baptist " "	226,000
London City Mission	103,000
Methodist New Connection Mission	13,000
Newfoundland School Society	18,000
London Society for Promoting Christianity amongst the Jews	226,000
British Society for Propagating the Gospel amongst the Jews	103,000
Colonial Church Society	18,000
Foreign Aid Society	23,620
Home Missionary Society	36,000
Irish Evangelical Society	112,000
Colonial Missionary Society	112,000
Naval and Military Bible Society	112,000
Christian Instruction Society	2,700
Indigent Blind Visiting Society	2,900
Protestant Association	6,700
Sunday School Union	7,200
Adult Deaf and Dumb Institution	4,000

British and Foreign Sailor's Society	-	-	-	-	\$5,400
" " Anti-Slavery Society	-	-	-	-	8,425
Orphan Working School	-	-	-	-	56,250
New Infant Orphan Asylum	-	-	-	-	12,600
Clergy Orphan Corporation	-	-	-	-	20,550
Friends of Foreigners in distress	-	-	-	-	11,250
Trinitarian Bible Society	-	-	-	-	6,700

RECEIPTS OF AMERICAN SOCIETIES.

American Tract Society,	receipts of last year	-	-	-	\$237,296
" " "	No. of pages circulated	-	-	-	211,730,285
American Home Missionary,	receipts last year	-	-	-	\$140,497
" " "	expenditures	-	-	-	139,233
American Bible Society,	receipts last year	-	-	-	\$254,377
" " "	Bibles and Testaments distributed	-	-	-	655,066
American S. School Union,	receipts	-	-	-	\$137,468
" " "	expenditures	-	-	-	137,296

During the year 1847-8 the receipts of nearly all the societies show a decrease, as compared with the preceding year—a circumstance attributed to the monetary pressure.

THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

From the minutes of the last General Assembly, just published, it appears that there are now in its connection—

Synods	-	-	-	23	Ministers	-	-	-	1803
Presbyteries	-	-	-	117	Licentiates	-	-	-	250
Churches	-	-	-	2459	Candidates for Ministry	-	-	-	373

The increase in eight years in this (the Old School) division of the church has been 560 ministers, and 636 churches. The Assembly, at its last sessions, directed its missionaries to form three presbyteries and a synod in China, one presbytery in Western Africa, and one in the Creek Indian Nation. It had already a synod of three presbyteries in Northern India.

The Board of Domestic Missions received contributions during the last year to the amount of \$68,000, besides \$6,000 for church extension, and employed 460 missionaries. The Board of Foreign Missions \$109,000, and sustained 16 missions, embracing 101 persons, exclusive of native assistants. The Board of Education received \$35,000, and assisted 377 candidates for the ministry. The Board of Publication issued 167,500 copies of books and tracts in the year, and received, from sales and donations, \$48,000.

The Theological Seminary at Princeton had 147 students, and the one near Pittsburg 48. The former has 31 endowed scholarships, the latter 5.

The Synod of New Jersey contains 158 ministers and 138 churches. The Presbytery of New Brunswick, which includes Trenton, has 38 ministers and 28 churches.

[From the Catholic Directory for 1848.]

ROMAN CATHOLICS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The total number of churches and chapels in England and Wales is 545; of which 534 are in England, and 11 in Wales. The greatest number in any one county is in Lancashire, where there are 105; in Yorkshire, 61; in Staffordshire, 36; in Middlesex, 24; in Warwickshire, 23; Northumberland, 22; Dur-

ham, 18; Cheshire, 17; Hampshire, Kent, and Leicestershire, 14 each; Lincolnshire, 12; Somersetshire and Worcestershire, each 11; Dorsetshire and Gloucestershire, each 10. In Scotland there are 85 churches and chapels, besides 22 stations, where the Roman Catholic service is performed—making a grand total of churches and chapels in Great Britain of 630. In England there are ten Roman Catholic colleges, viz.:—St. Edmund's, Hertfordshire; St. Peter's, St. Paul's, and St. Gregory's, Somersetshire; Stoneyhurst, Lancashire; St. Mary's, Staffordshire; St. Cuthbert's Ushaw, Durham; St. Lawrence, Yorkshire; St. Edward's, Lancashire; St. Mary's, Derbyshire; College of the Immaculate Conception, Leicestershire. In Scotland, one college, viz.:—St. Mary's Blaris, Kincardineshire. In Great Britain there are 38 convents and 11 monasteries; of the convents, 12 are in London. There are also 806 missionary priests, including the bishops; 680 of these are in England, 27 in Wales, and 99 in Scotland.

EPISCOPAL CHURCH IN NEW JERSEY.

It appears by the following brief passage from Bishop Doane's address at the late 65th annual convention, that the diocese has been signally prospered during the period that he has presided over it.

“The eighteen clergymen of 1832, are sixty-one; the twenty-nine Churches are now forty-nine.—Twenty-nine churches have been built, and one-third of that number have been wellnigh rebuilt. Nine parsonage houses have been added. The revival and increase, thus noted, I ascribe, under God, to the influence, direct and indirect, of the undertakings for Christian education, in which I have, for eleven years, been engaged. And under God, I rely, for the continuance of this revival and the extension of this increase, on the prosperity of the two institutions, now in successful operation at Burlington. Burlington College is intended for the training up of pastors. It is designed, also, as a central home for missionary deacons. When, in a few years more, these purposes shall be fulfilled, the diocese will have no want of clergy, of a proper spirit. There are already there five priests and six young men preparing for the ministry. Ten years, with God to bless us, will double, from that source alone, the present numbers of our clergy.

FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETIES.

The British and Foreign Bible Society has, within the period of eighteen years, increased its operations nearly threefold. The number of copies of the Scriptures distributed in 1830, was 434,422; in 1848 it was 1,124,067. The receipts of the year ending March, 1848, were £90,146. The total sum applicable to the purposes of the Society was £43,956. The receipts for Bibles and Testaments amounted to £46,189, the issues of the Society for the year amounting to 1,124,067, viz., from the depositories at home, 837,631; from depots abroad, 286,706. The total issues of the Society now amount to 20,865,837. The expenditure during the past year has been £105,042, being £14,896 beyond the receipts. The liabilities of the Society now extend to £41,800. *The Berlin Bible Society* and its auxiliaries have circulated 1,440,000 copies since its first institution, besides 300,000 New Testaments and 12,000 Bibles, which have been issued, through the liberality of the sovereign and of the British and Foreign Bible Society, to the Prussian army. *The Saxon Bible Society* circulated last year 7,560 copies, and had an income of £1,100. *The Swedish Society* has issued altogether 145,333 Bibles, and 450,757 New Testaments; but, inclusive of the

edition set on foot by the British and Foreign Bible Society in London, its issues have amounted to 888,432 copies of the Holy Scripture. In France the number circulated last year was 128,113 copies. *The Protestant Bible Society in St. Petersburg* has been so thwarted by official and other hinderances, that it could not succeed in circulating more than 7,500 copies last year, including 3,950 copies provided at the expense of the American Bible Society.

A London paper gives the following *statement of the religious condition of the world.*

1. There are in the world about 800,000,000 of souls.	
Of these Christianity is professed by Roman Catholics	- 80,000,000
Protestants	- 70,000,000
Greek Church	- 50,000,000
	<hr/>
	200,000,000
2. There are, who never hear the Gospel, Jews blinded by unbelief	- 5,000,000
Mahomedans, deluded by the false prophet,	- 140,000,000
Pagans, sunk in idolatry and superstition	- 450,000,000
	<hr/>
	600,000,000

3. Amongst these 600,000,000 there are only about 1400 Protestant missionaries, independent of native catechists and schoolmasters, and including those of America, Great Britain and the Continent of Europe, or one missionary to every 428,571 persons.

4. The entire sum of money raised by the churches of Great Britain for missionary purposes is about £350,000, and by those of America £150,000; making together £500,000; a sum only equal to the annual gifts of idolaters at Kalee's temple at Calcutta.

5. If every Sabbath scholar in Great Britain would collect only one penny per week for Christian missions, it would raise £433,333 6s. 8d. per year; which divided amongst the different missionary societies, would enable them to print twice as many books, establish twice as many schools, support twice as many missionaries, and occupy twice as many stations.

6. Of the heathen world,
 30,000,000 die every year;
 54,794 die every day;
 2,283 die every hour;
 38 die every minute.

At this rate, 36,860,000,000 have died during the Christian era, and 6,540,000,000 since the Reformation.

STATISTICS OF EDUCATION.

COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

We have prepared, with as much accuracy as possible, from present data, a table of the colleges in the Union, with the number of students and the Libraries. The numbers vary every year; as, for instance, by the report of the Regents in New York, the students in the colleges of the State were, in 1846, 688; in 1847, 957. It is said that 10 of the colleges are under Baptist influence, 8 under Episcopal, 13 Methodist, 12 Roman Catholic, and the remainder Congregational and Presbyterian.

States.	Number.	Students.	Vols. in Libraries.
Maine - - - - -	2	215	31,860
New Hampshire - - - - -	1	197	16,500
Vermont - - - - -	3	274	17,054
Massachusetts - - - - -	4	703	96,500
Rhode Island - - - - -	1	146	26,000
Connecticut - - - - -	3	621	64,949
New York - - - - -	7	957	57,000
New Jersey - - - - -	2	331	23,500
Pennsylvania - - - - -	9	817	50,070
Delaware - - - - -	1	112	3,600
Maryland - - - - -	4	390	22,500
District of Columbia - - - - -	2	165	29,200
Virginia - - - - -	8	727	34,500
North Carolina - - - - -	3	223	15,850
South Carolina - - - - -	2	200	18,000
Georgia - - - - -	5	286	15,000
Alabama - - - - -	4	370	17,200
Louisiana - - - - -	4	217	2,150
Tennessee - - - - -	7	612	20,216
Kentucky - - - - -	6	560	22,300
Ohio - - - - -	12	684	34,899
Indiana - - - - -	5	531	5,065
Illinois - - - - -	4	160	3,300
Missouri - - - - -	7	430	16,900
Michigan - - - - -	2	102	7,000
Iowa - - - - -	1		
Total - - - - -	109	10,030	651,113

THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Place.	Denomination.	Students in 1847.
Bangor Theol. Seminary,	Bangor, Me.	Congregational,	36
Theological Seminary,	Concord, N. H.	Methodist,	
Gilmanton Theol. Seminary,	Gilmanton, N. H.	Congregational,	23
Theological Seminary,	Andover, Mass.	Congregational,	86
Divinity School, Harv. Univ.,	Cambridge, do.	Cong. Unitarian,	35
Theological Institution,	Newton, do.	Baptist,	33
Theol. Dep. Yale College,	New Haven, Conn.	Congregational,	53
Theol. Inst. of Connecticut,	East Windsor, do.	Congregational,	29
Theol. Inst. Episc. Church,	New York, N. Y.	Prot. Episcopal,	61
Union Theol. Seminary,	New York, do.	Presbyterian,	112
Theol. Sem. of Auburn,	Auburn, do.	Presbyterian,	71
Hamilton Lit. and Th. Inst.,	Hamilton, do.	Baptist,	38
Hartwick Seminary,	Hartwick, do.	Lutheran,	5
Theol. Sem. As. Ref. Ch.,	Newburgh, do.	Ass. Reformed Ch.	11
Theol. Sem. Dutch Ref. Ch.,	N. Brunswick, N. J.	Dutch Reformed,	36
Theol. Sem. Presbyt. Ch.,	Princeton, do.	Presbyterian,	146
Sem. Lutheran Church,	Gettysburg, Pa.	Evangelical Luth.,	26
German Reformed,	York, do.	German Ref. Ch.,	20
Western Theol. Seminary,	Alleghany T. do.	Presbyterian,	54
Theological School,	Canonsburg, do.	Associate Ch.,	30
Theological Seminary,	Pittsburg, do.	Associate Ref.,	19

Epis. Theol. School of Va.,	Fairfax co., Va.	Prot. Episcopal,	38
Union Theol. Seminary,	Prince Ed. co., do.	Presbyterian,	20
Virginia Baptist Seminary,	Richmond, do.	Baptist,	67
Southern Theol. Seminary,	Columbia, S. C.	Presbyterian,	16
Theological Seminary,	Lexington, do.	Lutheran,	10
Furman Theol. Seminary,	Fairfield Dis., do.	Baptist,	30
Southwest Theol. Seminary,	Maryville, Tenn.	Presbyterian,	24
Lane Seminary,	Cincinnati, Ohio,	Presbyterian,	64
Theol. Dep. Ken. College,	Gambier, do.	Prot. Episcopal,	10
Theol. Dep. Wes. Res. Coll.,	Hudson, do.	Presbyterian,	14
Granville Theol. Dep.,	Granville, do.	Baptist,	8
Oberlin Theol. Dep.,	Oberlin, do.	Presbyterian,	25
Indiana Theol. Seminary,	S. Hanover, Ind.	Presbyterian,	10
Alton Theol. Seminary,	Upper Alton, Ill.	Baptist,	

LAW SCHOOLS.

Place.	Name.	Professors.	Students.
Cambridge, Mass.,	Harvard University,	- - 2	102
New Haven, Conn.,	Yale College,	- - 3	52
Princeton, N. J.,	College of New Jersey,	- - 3	
Carlisle, Pa.,	Dickinson College,	- - 1	6
Williamsburg, Va.,	William and Mary College,	- - 1	32
Charlottesville, Va.,	University of Virginia,	- - 1	72
Chapel Hill, N. C.,	North Carolina University,	- -	
Tuscaloosa, Ala.,	Alabama University,	- - 1	
Lexington, Ky.,	Transylvania University,	- - 3	75
Cincinnati, Ohio,	Cincinnati College,	- - 3	25
Bloomington, Ind.,	Indiana State University,	- 1	15

MEDICAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Place.	Prof.	Stu.	Graduates.	Lects. com.
Maine Medical School,	Brunswick,	4	81	581	February 15th.
N. H. Medical School,	Hanover,	6	50	735	1st or 2d Th. Aug.
Castleton Med. College,	Castleton,	7	104	555	4th Thurs. in Aug.
Vermont Medical College,	Woodstock,	7	96	332	1st Th. in March.
Med. School Har. Univ.,	Cambridge,	6	164	547	1st Wed. in Nov.
Berkshire Med. School,	Pittsfield,	5	103	473	1st. Th. in Sept.
Med. Inst. Yale College,	New Haven,	6	52	830	6 w. aft. 3d Th. Aug.
Coll. Phys. and Sur. N. Y.,	New York,	6	219	852	1st Mon. in Nov.
Med. Inst. Geneva Coll.,	Geneva,	6	158	98	1st Tues. in Oct.
Med. Faculty Univ. N. Y.,	New York,	6	410	597	Last Mon. in Oct.
Albany Medical College,	Albany,	8	114	58	1st Tues. in Oct.
Med. Dep. Univ. Penn.,	Philadelphia,	8	411	4774	1st Mon. in Nov.
Jefferson Med. College,	do.	8	493	1232	1st Mon. in Nov.
Med. Dep. Penn. College,	do.	8	60		1st Mon. in Nov.
Franklin Medical Coll.,	do.	8			2d Mon. in Oct.
Med. School Univ. Md.,	Baltimore,	6	100	909	October 31st.
Washington Med. Coll.,	do.	6	25		1st Mon. in Nov.
Med. School Columb. Coll.,	Washington,	6	40	81	1st Mon. in Nov.
Med. School Univ. Va.,	Charlottesville,	3	45		1st Mon. in Oct.
Richmond Med. College,	Richmond,	6	75	14	1st Mon. in Nov.
Winchester Med. College,	Winchester,	5			1st Mon. in Oct.
Med. Coll. State of S. C.,	Charleston,	8	158		2d Mon. in Nov.
Med. College of Georgia,	Augusta,	7	115	124	2d Mon. in Nov.
Med. Coll. of Louisiana,	New Orleans,	7	30		3d Mon. in Nov.

Name.	Place.	Prof.	Stu.	Graduates.	Lects. com.
Memphis Med. College,	Memphis, Ten.,	7			
Med. Dep. Transyl. Univ.,	Lexington,	7	214	1351	1st Mon. in Nov.
Louisville Med. Inst.,	Louisville,	6	242	53	1st Mon. in Nov.
West'n Reserve Med. Coll.,	Cleveland, Ohio,	8	216	96	1st Wed. in Nov.
Medical College of Ohio,	Cincinnati,	8	130	331	1st Mon. in Nov.
Rush Medical College,	Chicago, Ill.,	6	70	16	1st Mon. in Nov.
Med. Dep. of Kemp Coll.,	St. Louis, Mo.,	9	75	19	Last week in Oct.
Med. Coll. St. Louis Univ.,	do.	8	50	14	1st Mon. in Nov.
Willoughby Med. College,	Willoughby,	6	126	57	Last Mon. in Oct.
Med. Coll. Missouri Univ.,	Columbia,	7	92		1st Mon. in Nov.
Buffalo Med. College,	Buffalo, N. Y.				

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The population of the United States in 1840, according to the census, was 17,062,566. From the same census we gather the following particulars of the state of education at that time:

There were Colleges, Academies and Grammar schools	3,421
Students and pupils	181,509
Primary schools	47,207
Scholars	1,845,113
Pupils at public charge	468,323
White persons over twenty-one years of age who could not read and write	549,905

Of these there were in the New England states	13,041
“ “ “ Middle states	102,459
“ “ “ Southern states	168,031
“ “ “ South-Western states	100,901
“ “ “ North-Western states	165,463

To illustrate the distribution of the means of instruction in this country, we insert a table which exhibits the occupations of the parents of the pupils in the Central High School, Philadelphia.

Accountant, 1; Agent, 1; Attorneys, 2; Bakers, 3; Blacksmiths, 1; Book-binder, 1; Bookseller, 1; Bricklayers, 3; Button maker, 1; Cabinet maker, 1; Chairmaker, 1; Chemist, 1; Clergymen, 2; Clerks, 6; Confectioner, 1; Conveyancer, 1; Cooper, 1; Cordwainers, 3; Dentist, 1; Distiller, 1; Farmers, 3; Gentlemen, 1; Grocers, 7; Gunsmith, 1; Hatter, 1; Ice Dealer, 1; Innkeeper, 1; Iron Founder, 1; Jeweler, 1; Laborers, 2; Machinist, 1; Manufacturers, 6; Mariner, 1; Merchants, 6; Milliner, 1; Paper box maker, 1; Pavers, 2; Physicians, 2; Plumber, 1; Printers, 2; Saddlers, 3; Seamstresses, 2; Shipwright, 1; Stone Cutters, 2; Storekeepers, 10; Tailors, 8; Tallow Chandler, 1; Tin-Smiths, 2; Weavers, 3; Wheelwrights, 2; Widows, 7.

We cannot forego the occasion to remark of this institution that it is one of the best in the Union, and in its order will be hereafter properly noticed.

The following is taken from a notice issued by Hon. Wm. Slade, Corresponding Secretary and Agent of the Board of National Popular Education, May 30, 1848:

The Board of National Popular Education was organized at Cleaveland, in the State of Ohio, in April 1847. Its concerns are managed by twenty-five Directors, citizens of that State. Ex-Governor Morrow, President; Judge Mc Lean of the Supreme Court of the United States, and Judge Lane, of Sandusky, Vice-Presidents. An Executive Committee of five, residents of Cleaveland, of which Dr. Aiken is Chairman.

The object of the Board is to aid the cause of Popular Education, by inviting the services of competent Female Teachers; collecting them periodically, for the purpose of carrying them through a short course of preparatory training, and

transferring them to portions of the country where good teachers are wanted, and where the Board shall have secured for them employment and a competent support.

The Board have sent out *eighty-five* teachers, namely, thirty-two from the State of Massachusetts; twenty-three from Vermont; nine from Maine; eight from New Hampshire; five from Connecticut; four from New York; three from Rhode Island; and one from Pennsylvania. Twenty-seven have been sent to Indiana; twenty-seven to Illinois; eight to Michigan; seven to Iowa; six to Wisconsin; four to Tennessee; two to Kentucky; two to Western Pennsylvania; one to Ohio; and one to North Carolina.

The teachers thus sent, have been collected, for preparation, in three classes,—the first at Albany, and the last two at Hartford, Connecticut, where arrangements have been made for the reception and preparation of future classes.

It is proposed to collect a fourth class, at Hartford, in August, and send them out in October next. They will be carried through a preparatory course of six weeks, under competent instructors.

From the Christian Observer.

EDUCATION AMONG THE CHEROKEES.

The Cherokees have appropriated a sum of money to be a Permanent Fund, the interest of which is to be applied to the purposes of Education. This money is deposited in the Treasury of the United States.—The Nation is divided into eight districts, (or counties,) and in each district there are located from two to four common schools, according to the density of the population, and the wants of the inhabitants.

A neighborhood, to be entitled to the privilege of a school, must provide a comfortable school-house, and furnish an average attendance of 25 scholars. Books and stationery are at the public expense. As the Cherokees live by agriculture, and are consequently much scattered, they labor under the same disadvantage that the Southern and Western States generally do, in supporting common schools. There are at present twenty-one free schools in active operation, besides those at the several mission stations. This is among a population of from fifteen to twenty thousand. Teachers are examined with respect to qualifications, and receive a salary of \$33 per month, out of which they pay their board, amounting to probably \$6 per month. If I mistake not, there are very few country public schools in any part of the United States that pay their teachers so much. In addition to the above-mentioned common schools, two high schools have lately been established by law—one for males, the other for females. The buildings for these high schools, which are now in course of erection, are substantial brick edifices, two stories high, with piazzas twelve feet wide, and a colonnade supporting the roof on three sides. The buildings are in the shape of the letter U, and occupy a ground plan of 104 feet square. They are intended to accommodate 100 scholars each, who board in the same building. The buildings will probably cost fifteen or twenty thousand dollars each. It is expected that these high schools will be in operation in the course of a year or eighteen months.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

We have before us some statistics upon this subject, from which we copy:

IGNORANCE.

1st. Unable to read and write	-	-	-	-	16,825,000
2d. Able to read and not to write	-	-	-	-	7,007,000
3d. Reading and writing, but incorrectly	-	-	-	-	6,968,000

INSTRUCTION.

4th. Reading and writing correctly	- - - -	2,430,000
5th. Having the elements of classical education	- - - -	735,000
6th. Having completed their classical studies,	- - - -	315,000
Total	- - - -	34,400,000

Of these, however, the following calculation show not one quarter are entitled to vote in the coming election:

The number of females in France is	- - - -	17,232,000
Under 21 years of age	- - - -	8,087,000
Of 21 years of age, or above—		
The total of the male population is	- - - -	17,168,008
Under 21 years of age	- - - -	8,252,000
Of, or above 21 years of age	- - - -	8,916,000
There are, therefore, 8,916,000 votes, who are thus divided:		
1st. The working classes and paupers	- - - -	6,585,000
2d. Manufacturing, trading, and agricultural capitalists	- - - -	927,000
3d. Learned professions, and independent incomes	- - - -	425,000
4th. Paid officials, army, navy, and pensioners	- - - -	976,000
Total	- - - -	8,916,000

Of the 6,585,000 belonging to the first class, 5,519,000 are in a state of ignorance, most of them unable to read and write; and in the fourth class there is also a sad deficiency of knowledge, as out of 1000 recruits, 500 do not know their alphabet.

This we admit, is not a very favorable picture; and yet we hope for the best. Nay, we believe that France will be able to maintain her exalted position, will stand before the world liberalized, redeemed, and disenthralled.—*Bicknell's Report.*

COMMON OR PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following rapid sketch of the history, organization and present condition of the Common and Public Schools of the New England States, is compiled from materials placed at our disposal by H. Barnard, Esq., Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island. We have only room for a part in this number. Mr. Barnard, it is understood, is preparing for the press a work on the subject of Popular Education in the United States—an undertaking for which he is eminently qualified.

1. MASSACHUSETTS.

In regard to common schools, New England may justly claim, as is eloquently said by Mr. Webster in his Plymouth Oration in 1822, a merit of a peculiar character. "She early adopted and has constantly maintained the principle, that it is the undoubted right, and the bounden duty of government, to provide for the instruction of all youth. That which is elsewhere left to chance, or to charity, we secure by law. For the purpose of public instruction, we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question, whether he himself have, or have not, children to be benefitted by the education for which he pays. We regard it as a wise and liberal system of police, by which property, and life, and the peace of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respectability, and a sense of cha-

acter, by enlarging the capacity, and increasing the sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction, we seek, as far as possible, to purify the whole moral atmosphere; to keep good sentiments uppermost, and to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as the censures of the law, and the denunciations of religion, against immorality and crime. We hope for a security beyond the law, and above the law, in the prevalence of enlightened and well-principled moral sentiment. We hope to continue and prolong the time, when, in the villages and farm-houses of New-England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors. And knowing that our government rests directly on the public will, that we may preserve it, we endeavor to give a safe and proper direction to that public will. We do not, indeed, expect all men to be philosophers or statesmen; but we confidently trust, and our expectation of the duration of our system of government rests on that trust, that by the diffusion of general knowledge, and good and virtuous sentiments, the political fabric may be secure, as well against open violence and overthrow, as against the slow but sure undermining of licentiousness." In this glory Massachusetts may rejoice, for her early, constant, intelligent and liberal interest which her legislature and people have manifested from the first foundation of the government."

The foundation of a College, and the instruction of all the children in the English tongue, the capital laws, and the grounds and principles of religion were among the first objects of attention in the Massachusetts colony. In the Colony Laws, under the date of 1642, we find the following enactment:

"Whereas, through the good hand of God upon us, there is a college founded in Cambridge, in the county of Middlesex, called Harvard College, for the encouragement whereof this court hath given the sum of four hundred pounds, and also the revenue of the ferry betwixt Charlestown and Boston; and that the well ordering and managing of the said college is of great concernment; It is, therefore, ordered, that the Governor and Deputy, and all the magistrates within the jurisdiction, together with the teaching elders of Cambridge, Watertown, Charlestown, Boston, Roxbury, and Dorchester, and the president of the college, shall have power to establish statutes and constitutions for the instituting, guiding, and furthering of the members thereof in piety, morality, and learning, and also to manage the revenues."

In May 1642, the legislature gave their attention to domestic education.

"Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth; and whereas many parents, and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in that kind:

It is therefore ordered by this court and the authority thereof, That the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning, as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein; also, that all masters of families do, once a week at least, catechise their children and servants in the grounds and principles of religion, and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children or apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism, without book, that they may be able to answer to the questions that shall be propounded to them out of such catechisms by their parents or masters, or any of the selectmen, where they shall call them to a trial of what they have learned in this kind; and further, that all parents and masters do breed and bring up their children and apprentices in some honest lawful calling, labor or employment, either in husbandry or some other trade profitable for themselves and the commonwealth; if they will not nor can not train them up in learning, to fit them for higher employments;

and if any of the selectmen, after admonition by them given to such masters of families, shall find them still negligent of their duty, in the particulars aforementioned, whereby children and servants become rude, stubborn and unruly, the said selectmen, with the help of two magistrates, shall take such children or apprentices from them, and place them with some masters for years, boys till they come to twenty-one, and girls eighteen years of age complete, which will more strictly look unto and force them to submit unto government, according to the rules of this order, if by fair means and former instructions they will not be drawn unto it."

And in 1654; "Forasmuch as it appeareth by too much experience, that divers children and servants do behave themselves disobediently and disorderly towards their parents, masters, and governors, to the disturbance of families and discouragement of such parents and governors: It is ordered, that any magistrate may sentence the offender to corporal punishment, by whipping or otherwise, not exceeding ten stripes."

The peculiar glory of Massachusetts is, that she led the way in establishing a system of common schools. Not to keep and maintain the schools required by law, has been an indictable offence in Massachusetts, since 1647. The following is an act of that year:

"It being one chief project of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times, keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times, by persuading them from the use of tongues, so that at least, the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded with false glosses of saint seeming deceivers; and that learning may not be buried in the grave of our forefathers, in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors:

"It is therefore ordered by this court and authority thereof, That every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town, to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town, shall appoint; provided, that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns.

"And it is further ordered, That where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the masters thereof being able to instruct youths, so far as they may be fitted for the university; and if any town neglect the performance hereof, above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum, to the next such school, till they shall perform this order."

In 1789, all previous laws on the subject were revised and condensed in an Act with the following preamble:

"Whereas the Constitution of this Commonwealth hath declared it to be the duty of the General Court to provide for the education of youth; and whereas a general dissemination of knowledge and virtue is necessary to the prosperity of every State, and the very existence of a Commonwealth; it is enacted that schools be kept in all towns according to the number of families; and in towns of two hundred families, a grammar school; and it is enjoined on all instructors of youth, to take diligent care, and to exert their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety, justice, and a sacred regard to truth, love to their country, humanity and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry and frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society, and the basis upon which the republican constitution is structured, and to endeavor to lead those under their care into a particular under-

standing of the tendency of the before-mentioned virtues to preserve and perfect a republican constitution, and to secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness; and the tendency of the opposite vices to slavery and ruin."

In 1835, a "Common School Fund" was commenced by setting aside the avails from the sale of lands in Maine, belonging to Massachusetts, and from certain claims for military services on the United States government.

In 1837 the Board of Education was established, with the following powers and duties:

"The Board of Education shall prepare and lay before the Legislature in a printed form, on or before the second Wednesday of January annually, an abstract of the school returns received by the secretary of the Commonwealth; and the said Board of Education may appoint their own secretary, who shall receive a reasonable compensation for his services, not exceeding one thousand dollars per annum, and who shall, under the direction of the Board, collect information of the actual condition and efficiency of the Common Schools, and other means of popular education, and diffuse as widely as possible, throughout every part of the Commonwealth, information of the most approved and successful methods of arranging the studies and conducting the education of the young; to the end that all children in this Commonwealth, who depend on Common Schools for instruction, may have the best education which these schools can be made to impart.

"The Board of Education, annually, shall make a detailed report to the Legislature of all its doings, with such observations as their experience and reflection may suggest, upon the condition and efficiency of our system of popular education, and the most practicable means of extending it."

The establishment of the Board of Education and the appointment by that Board of the Hon. Horace Mann, as Secretary, at that time President of the Senate, and in the front rank of the legal profession of Boston, marks an important era in the history of the public schools of Massachusetts.

In 1843, Mr. Mann, with the approbation of the Board of Education, visited Europe for the purpose of inspecting schools, and observing the practical workings of the school system of those governments which had done most in this field. The results of his visit were embodied in his Seventh Annual Report.

In 1845, through the liberal donation of one thousand dollars for this purpose, by Hon. Edmund Dwight, Mr. Mann was enabled to hold four Teachers' Institutes, or temporary Normal Schools, in different parts of the State, which were in session two weeks, and attended by upward of five hundred teachers. On the call of the Essex County Teachers' Association, a State Convention of Teachers was held at Worcester, which resulted in the formation of the "*Massachusetts Association of Teachers.*"

In the same year (1845) a memorial on behalf of certain friends of education in Boston and vicinity, was presented to the Legislature, offering the sum of five thousand dollars to be obtained by private subscription, on condition that the Legislature would give an equal sum for the purpose of erecting two Normal School-Houses; one for the school at Westfield, and the other for that at Bridgewater. The proposition was accepted, and the grant made, and the schools henceforth designated State Normal Schools.

In 1846, the sum of thirty-five hundred dollars a-year was placed at the disposal of the Board of Education to defray the expenses of holding Teachers' Institutes in different parts of the State,—not more than two hundred dollars to be expended on any one Institute.

Outline of the System.

Organization. 1. The State is recognized as imposing certain legal obligations on all the towns, as contributing to the means of supporting schools, and exer-

cising a general supervision through the Legislature and Board of Education. 2. Towns (308), according to their population, must maintain free or common schools of different grades, and for longer or shorter portions of the year—*provided*, that every town must raise a sum equal to *one dollar and twenty-five cents* for each person between the ages of four and sixteen years of age, for the support of schools, including only fuel, wages and board of teacher, and in which orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior, shall be taught for at least six months in the year, and they are clothed with all the powers of taxation and supervision necessary to this object, and are subjected to a penalty for not exercising these powers. 3. School districts, or territorial subdivisions of the towns, when formed by the towns, and authorized by a vote of the town for this purpose, may elect their own local officers, raise money for building, furnishing and repairing school-houses, and providing apparatus, and school libraries. 4. Every inhabitant who has any voice in public affairs is recognized in the administration and benefits of the system. 5. Every child, white or colored, rich or poor, is entitled as a *right*, to all the privileges of the schools, and of the library of the district.

Supervision. Beginning at the lowest series of officers, there is. 1. Prudential committee of one person for each district, if the town is divided into school districts. This committee is appointed by the legal voters of the town, or of the district, as may be determined on by the town. He must be a resident of the district, and must hire a teacher; see that the school-house is in good repair and condition; provide fuel, and attend to all the local management of the school, subject to the regulations and requirements of the school committee of the town. 2. School committee of the town. Each town must choose annually, a committee of three, five or seven members, to have the charge and superintendence of all the schools of the town. The apportionment of school money among the schools or districts; the examination and licensing of teachers: the visitation of every public school monthly, during each season of schooling, one of which visits must be within two weeks of its opening, and another within two weeks of its close; the regulation of text-books; and the presentation of a written report respecting their own doings, and the condition and improvement of all the public schools, annually, to the town, and to the Secretary of State, are devolved on this committee. They receive such compensation as the town may vote, not less than one dollar per day, for the time devoted to the duties of the office. 3. State Board of Education. The Board is composed of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and eight persons appointed by the Governor and Council, with the power of appointing their own Secretary. The Secretary receives a salary of fifteen hundred dollars, and the members of the Board are allowed their expenses. The powers of the Board, or their Secretary, are simply advisory, and their action on the schools results from the suggestions in their annual reports, and other communications, on the condition and improvement of the schools, which teachers, committees, districts, towns, or the Legislature are at liberty to adopt or reject. These reports are printed by the Legislature and distributed widely over the State.

Teachers. No person can teach in the public schools, unless he has a certificate of qualification from the school committee of the town, in respect to moral character, literary qualifications, and capacity for the government of schools. To enable young men and young women to qualify themselves, there is in all of the large towns, a Town High School, open to all of the older and more advanced scholars of such towns; Incorporated Academies, aided originally by the State for the purpose of giving a better education than the ordinary public schools; and three State Normal Schools, at West Newton, Bridgewater, and Westfield, open without charge for tuition, to such persons as wish to qualify themselves to teach in the schools of Massachusetts. These schools are under the direction of the Board of Education.

Grades of School. The lowest grade of school which the poorest and smallest town or district in the commonwealth can keep, must give instruction in orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic and good behavior, for at least six months in the year. In the larger towns, containing over four hundred inhabitants, there must be a school in which the teacher, in addition to the branches above specified, must be competent to instruct in the Latin or Greek languages, and in general history, rhetoric and logic. Any two or more adjacent school districts may maintain a union school for the more advanced scholars of each district.

District Libraries. The school districts in all the towns are supplied with libraries open to the children of the school, and the inhabitants generally of the districts, through which the work of self education can be carried on beyond the school-room, by individuals who have outgrown the same.

Support. The support of the common schools is derived mainly by a town tax, assessed and collected like any other tax, and consists generally of an appropriation of a portion of the annual tax raised in the towns. The expenses of education may be apportioned thus: 1. Every parent provides books, stationary, &c. 2. Every district provides school-houses and appendages, fuel, &c. 3. Every town provides for the compensation of the teachers, and for this purpose must raise at least one dollar and twenty-five cents for each person between four and sixteen years of age, in the town. 4. The State has a school fund, amounting to \$800,000, and its increase is limited to 1,000,000. A portion of its income thus far has been appropriated among the several towns for the purchase of school libraries.

Modes of disseminating information. Every teacher must keep a register, in reference to attendance, studies, &c., which is open to parents and committees. The school committee report annually to the town, and their reports, unless printed, must be read in open town meeting. The same report must be forwarded to the Secretary of State, together with returns respecting the condition of the schools in more than twenty specified particulars. An abstract of these returns and reports is submitted to the Legislature, and printed for gratuitous circulation among the committee of districts and towns, and public officers in the different towns. *The Common School Journal*, although a private enterprise, and unaided by the State, is a most important instrumentality in diffusing information as to the condition of the schools, and desirable improvements in their organization and management.

Condition of the Common Schools in 1847-8.

The following summary of the condition of the common schools in Massachusetts for 1847 is taken from the *Eleventh Annual Report of the Secretary* (Hon. Horace Mann) of the Board of Education, published in January, 1848.

Population of the State in 1840	- - - - -	737,700
Valuation of property	- - - - -	\$299,878,329 31
Number of towns	- - - - -	308
Number of public schools	- - - - -	3,538
Number of persons between the ages of four and sixteen	-	209,919
Number of scholars, of all ages, in all the public schools	{ summer	160,952
	{ winter	178,776
Average number of scholars in incorporated academies	- -	4,220
“ “ “ private schools, not incorporated	- -	26,785
Average duration of the public schools, in months and days	-	725
Number of teachers employed in summer and winter	{ males	2,437
	{ females	5,238
Average wages paid per month, including value of board	{ male	\$32 46
	{ female	13 60

Amount of money raised by tax for the support of schools, including only the wages of teachers and fuel	\$662,870 57
Amount of board and fuel contributed by parents	35,722 92
Aggregate amount paid for tuition in incorporated academies	60,260 04
“ “ “ “ unincorporated private schools	247,756 12
Income of local school fund	17,536 62
Income of surplus revenue appropriated to schools	8,298 70
The highest amount of money raised by tax, on the property of a town, for the education of each child between the ages of 4 and 16, is, in Brookline	7 29
The lowest amount do. is	1 25
The average do. for the whole State	3 14
The amount raised by tax for the compensation of teachers was, in 1837	400,000 00
1841	510,590 02
1847	662,870 00
The whole number of female teachers employed in all of the public schools in 1837 was	3 591
“ “ 1847 “	5,238

The following tables exhibit the expenditures for school-houses and other school purposes, by the city of Boston, for the last ten years, ending in May, 1848:—

	Grammar Schools.	Primary Schools.	Total for all the Schools.
For new houses, rents, and repairs	\$602,720 97	\$236,026 10	\$838,747 07
Fuel	27,622 12	20,864 27	48,486 39
Furniture	17,589 96	10,855 32	28,445 28
Salaries of teachers	857,824 91	293,986 45	1,151,811 36
Incidentals,	26,238 24	6,613 67	32,851 91
Total	\$1,531,996 20	\$568,315 81	\$2,100,312 01

The following are the items of expenditures for public schools for the year ending May 1, 1848:

	Grammar Schools.	Primary Schools.	Total for all the Schools.
For new houses, rents, and repairs	\$165,987 58	\$52,848 71	\$218,836 29
Fuel	4,381 27	4,896 74	9,277 95
Furniture and Apparatus	4,439 46	3,584 08	8,023 54
Salaries	114,925 80	47,950 64	162,876 44
Incidentals	2,228 75	763 83	3,092 59
Total	\$291,962 86	\$110,044 00	\$402,966 81

(To be continued in the next number.)

(ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.)

SKETCH OF THE EARL OF BELLOMONT,

*Governor of New York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire,
1695 — 1701.**

The revolution of 1688, which ended in the expulsion of the race of Stuarts from the throne of England, was hailed with joy by the people of the northern British colonies. In New England they rose *en masse* upon their governor, and imprisoned him in his own fortress; and in New York, a gallant people, stimulated by their wrongs and the example of the citizens of Boston, seized upon the forts, and proclaimed the accession of William and Mary. In this latter colony, however, it was the occasion of the foulest blot upon her annals. The leader in this patriotic movement, JACOB LEISLER, a brave, honest, and virtuous Dutch burgher, fell a victim to the brutal animosity of a class who, though opposed to the revolution, yet, possessing wealth and patronage, contrived to keep themselves in power, and on the arrival of Sloughter, the first royal governor appointed by William and Mary, hurried off Leisler to the scaffold.

The administration of Bellomont was the first after the revolution which in any degree answered the expectations of the people of New York. He had, in parliament, pronounced against the execution of Leisler, and aided in procuring a reversal of his attainder. He was the personal friend and enjoyed the confidence of King William, was the first nobleman appointed to the government of any of the northern colonies, and his history becomes interesting from his connection with the friends of Leisler after his arrival in New York, and the favor constantly shown by him towards the families of those who had suffered a judicial murder.

Another circumstance invests the administration of Bellomont

* The writer of this article is a prominent member of the New York Historical Society, and has ample means for entire accuracy. He has furnished an admirably drawn sketch of a very remarkable period in our history; and besides other interesting particulars, has given the true accounts of Leisler and Kidd, whose names are so familiar to us—the one, a noble-minded man and true patriot, the other, a bold and successful freebooter, the “Prince of Pirates.”

with a degree of interest, and that is his supposed connection with the renowned pirate, Captain Kidd. The connection of Bellomont with Kidd has perhaps never been, and, after this lapse of time, never will be, fully explained; but, while enough is undoubtedly known to cast a shade of suspicion upon his character, it is but just to say that, to whatever extent the earl may have been implicated, other distinguished noblemen of that day, and even the sovereign himself, were equally implicated.

Supposing that the readers of the Register may feel some interest in the subject, the following abstract of a MS. Memoir of the Earl of Bellomont is submitted.

RICHARD COOTE, Earl of Bellomont and Baron of Coloony, was the son of Sir Richard Coote, who, on the restoration of Charles II., was made a peer of the realm, with the title of Baron of Coloony. The family is of French extraction, and settled originally in Devonshire. From a branch of the family, which afterwards possessed large estates in Norfolk and Suffolk, those of the name in Ireland are descended.*

Sir Charles Coote, grandfather of Earl Bellomont, was a man of great consideration in Ireland, and distinguished himself in the rebellion which broke out in 1641. Cox, the historian, says "he became so terrible to the Irish, that they seldom made any resistance where he was."† Leland, another historian, speaks of him as "a soldier of fortune, trained in the wars of Elizabeth; morose, insolent, and cruel. He repelled the Irish to their mountains; and, in revenge of their depredations, committed such ruthless and indiscriminate carnage in Leicester as rivalled the utmost extravagances of the northerns."‡ He was killed in one of his desperate forays, in 1642. His eldest son, Charles, was also distinguished for military exploits in the service of the parliament; but, on the deposition of Richard Cromwell, when it became apparent that the monarchy was to be re-established, acting with all the zeal of a new convert, he contrived to render such prompt and efficient aid to the royal cause as to ingratiate himself with Charles II.; and, in 1660, was rewarded by that monarch with the title of Baron and Viscount Coote and Earl of Mountrath. But he did not long enjoy these honors; he died 18th December, 1661.§

Richard Coote, father of the Earl of Bellomont, was the third son of Sir Charles Coote, and brother of the Earl of Mountrath; and having co-operated with the latter in bringing about the restoration,

* Lodge's Irish Peerage, i. 299.

† Hist. of Ireland, iii. 145.

‡ History of Ireland, ii. 83.

§ Nichol's Irish Comp., 1735.

was, in 1660, created Baron of Coloony, in the county of Sligo. He died on the 16th of July, 1683,* when his son Richard succeeded to his title and estates.

The second Lord Coloony, after the accession of James II., went over to the continent, and was one of the first who espoused the interest of the Prince of Orange. The fact of his absenteeism, with that of others of the Protestant nobility and gentry, did not escape the notice of the king, who, on the 22d of November, 1687, issued an order for his immediate return to the kingdom, on pain of proscription. Lord Coloony immediately returned, and, in 1688, became member of parliament for Droitcorick, in Worcestershire, for which place he served in several succeeding parliaments. In March, 1689, he received the appointment of Treasurer and Receiver-General to King William's queen; whereupon the parliament held at Dublin by James II. pronounced an attainder against him. The displeasure of the fallen monarch, however, only served to increase his interest with William and Mary, and, on the 2d November, 1689, he was advanced to the dignity of Earl of Bellomont. His career was a brief one; and though we find nothing in his history that marks him with greatness, either as a man or a peer, he was uniformly popular in his government of New York and New England, and retained the confidence of the king to the time of his death.

The revolution in England, to which Bellomont owed his fortune, had produced its effects in the provinces he was destined to govern. The despotic rule of James II. had been exemplified in the conduct of the royal governors in America. The people were everywhere ready for a change, and rejoiced when it became inevitable. Nicholson, who had been lieutenant-governor of New York under Governors Dongan and Andros, had given great dissatisfaction to the people of that colony. The wealthy and influential citizens were irritated by the privation of their former liberties, and the mass of the people were inflamed by the dread of popery. Nicholson himself was a Catholic, and almost every station in the province had been filled by men of the same faith. Accordingly, when the news arrived of the proclamation of the Prince of Orange, and that the people of New England had declared in his favor and imprisoned Governor Andros, in April, 1689, the people of New York were ready to follow the example of the people of Boston. But the wealthy citizens hesitated, and generally discountenanced any movement of the kind. Nicholson and his council not only refrained from proclaiming King William, but they dispatched a messenger to Governor Bradstreet, at Boston, haughtily demanding the

* Lodge's Irish Peerage, i. 386.

release of Andros and "the suppression of the rabble" who had imprisoned him.

At this crisis, Jacob Leisler, a wealthy merchant, of Dutch descent, ambitious spirit, and popular address, determined to declare for King William. He was the eldest of the five captains of trainbands, which then constituted the military force of New York. Under his leadership the people rose on the memorable evening of the 2d of June, 1689, and seized the fort. They then formed a committee of safety, and called Leisler to the government. Responding to the call, Leisler instantly proclaimed King William by sound of trumpet, and wrote to the monarch, with his own hand, an account of what had been done, and what he was still doing, in repairing the fortifications to repel the Jacobite or French cruisers that might assail the town, and at the same time accounting to the king for the public money thus expended. The friends of Leisler naturally expected, and so did he, that the king would confirm his acts, and reward his loyalty by conferring the government upon him. But those of the principal citizens who had refused to sign the declaration proposed by Leisler, in favor of the Prince of Orange, were greatly displeased that a man of humble origin should thus get the start of them; and while they tardily declared for the new king, they published a manifesto against the government of Leisler. Nicholson, instead of suffering the fate of Andros at Boston, went on ship-board and returned to England, where, backed by the influence of the enemies of Leisler, the friends of Nicholson prevailed at court; and Leisler's messenger, who had been dispatched to London, was sent back with empty thanks. Henry Sloughter, a weak and intemperate man, was sent out as governor, in 1691. He had sailed from England in company with Capt. Ingoldsby, commanding a detachment of the king's troops. Their ships were separated in a storm. Ingoldsby arrived at New York a month before Sloughter, and demanded the keys of the town. Leisler refused him entrance till he showed his commission as a king's officer. Upon showing it, quarters were assigned to the troops within the walls. Ingoldsby then demanded possession of the forts or citadel, as the representative of Sloughter. But he had neither warrant nor letter to enforce this claim of authority. He attempted to urge it by force of arms, and while both parties were arrayed against each other, Sloughter arrived. Leisler immediately wrote to Sloughter, congratulating him on his appointment, intimating that no time ought to be lost in procuring his legal instalment as governor, and asking that, when the necessary forms of swearing in his council, &c., had been gone through, Sloughter would send an officer to examine into the condition of the fort, audit his accounts, &c., in order that the king might know he had done his duty as a good officer and an honorable

man. Sloughter, in return, took no notice of Leisler's suggestion, save to demand the instant surrender of his authority. He published his own commission "by authority," associated the personal enemies of Leisler with him as a council, and before either he or they had been sworn into office, summoned Leisler before them as a traitor. Leisler was tried by a special commission of oyer and terminer, the new governor naming eight judges, one-half from among his own officers, and the others from among the most violent personal enemies of the accused. He was tried by his enemies, and, of course, condemned and hurried to execution, on the 16th of May, 1691* It is stated by the historian of that period that Sloughter for some time hesitated to sign the warrant of execution; that the enemies of Leisler, apprehensive of a reaction in his favor, earnestly pressed the governor to act, and, having invited him to a sumptuous entertainment, procured from him, while in a state of intoxication, his signature to the death-warrant of Leisler, and of Milbourne, his son-in-law.

This proceeding, alarming the adherents of Leisler, many of them fled from the province; and for many years the most bitter contentions were kept up between the two factions into which the people were thus divided. Sloughter died at New York, 23d July, 1691, and was succeeded by Benjamin Fletcher, who arrived 29th August, 1692. A son of Leisler, an energetic and resolute man, had brought the attainder of his father before the king, and finding efficient aid in the Massachusetts agents, who were then in London, and also in the Earl of Bellomont, succeeded in 1694, in procuring a reversal of the attainder. Bellomont, who had been one of the committee in the House of Lords to examine the proceedings in the cases of Leisler and Milbourne, did not hesitate to declare in his place, that "these men had been barbarously murdered."

It is well known that during the latter part of the reign of James II., under the rule of colonial governors, as corrupt and despotic as himself, piracy increased to an alarming extent. At New York, under the administrations of Sloughter and Fletcher, from 1691 to 1697, piracy, though not openly encouraged, was secretly promoted, and the governor himself, if he did not share the spoils of the freebooters, winked at their outrages, and took no pains to punish them. Rumors of these increasing disorders in the colonies after awhile reached the ears of William III. Early in 1695 he summoned the Earl of Bellomont, and informing him of his determination to suppress the illegal traffic and piracy which had been for years increasing in the colonies, invested him with the government of New York and New England.

* See Hoffman's admirable vindication of the administration of Leisler, in Sparks's *Amer. Biog.*, vol. xiii.

Anxious to make effectual préparations for the suppression of piracy, Earl Bellomont at once set about devising the most ready means. It so happened, that Robert Livingston, of New York, was at that time in London, and being acquainted with the Earl, introduced, and recommended to his lordship one William Kidd, whom he knew as "a man of honor and intrepidity," to command the proposed expedition against the pirates. The plan was, to have fitted out a frigate, and of this Kidd would have had command, but the exigency of the war prevented. The scheme of a private adventure was then planned by Livingston, with the concurrence of the Earl and other noblemen, and the king entered so heartily into it, that he took one-tenth of the stock, the Earl of Bellomont, Lords Shrewsbury and Romney, the Lord Chancellor Somers, and various other noblemen, becoming partners with the sovereign in this adventure against the pirates. The adventure-galley was fitted out, at an expense of near £6000, and on the 10th December, 1695, Kidd had a commission from the Admiralty, as a private man-of-war; but that empowering him only to act against the French, he was provided with another under the Great Seal, dated 26th January following, with full power to apprehend all pirates he should meet with, and bring them to trial. Another grant under the Great Seal, in May 1697, provided that all the property taken from the pirates should vest in the parties at whose cost the vessel was fitted out—the king to receive one-tenth of the proceeds, and Livingston entering into bonds with Kidd to Bellomont, to account for all prizes. Kidd sailed from Plymouth in April, 1696, with orders to proceed against the pirates, and hold himself responsible to the Earl of Bellomont. The result of this enterprise is well known. Kidd, instead of suppressing piracy, became the prince of pirates, and came near involving the ministry and all concerned, even the king himself, in the charge of aiding the freebooters. In the articles of impeachment preferred against Lord Somers and others, in May, 1701, this was among the specifications. The impeachment, however, fell to the ground.

Although designated as governor of New York in 1695, Earl Bellomont did not receive his commission until the 18th June, 1697. He embarked early in the following autumn, on board a vessel of war. The merchant vessels which sailed at the same time, arrived safe at Boston; but the man-of-war, encountering the severe gales of the tempestuous season which followed, was blown off to Barbadoes, and there wintered, not arriving at New York until the following spring.

The Earl of Bellomont arrived at New York on the 2d April, 1698. He brought with him, as lieutenant-governor, John Nanfan, Esq., a cousin of the Countess Bellomont, who also came out with

him. As soon as it was known that the royal vessel was entering the harbor, notwithstanding the enemies of Leisler, whose cause the Earl had espoused, were in power, they made extensive preparations to welcome the arrival of the new governor with every public demonstration of joy. The city council "ordered four barrels of powder for a grand salute." The most loyal addresses were voted by the mayor and aldermen; and the most wealthy citizens, those who had sided with the persecutors of Leisler, vied with the majority of the people, the friends of the unfortunate victim, who should pay the Earl the highest honors. A few days after he had published his commission, the common council invited him to a public entertainment, projected on a magnificent scale for that period, and appointed two from each board, as "a committee to make a bill of fare," with power, "for the effectual doing thereof, to call to their assistance such cooks as they shall think necessary." There can be no doubt, says Dunlap, that the party in power trembled, and were conscience-struck; knowing, as they probably did know, that Lord Bellomont came to his government with strong prejudices against some of the prominent actors in the preceding administration, and a fixed determination to exert his power and influence to restore to the family of Leisler their former rank and possession.

After going into a thorough investigation of Fletcher's administration, the Earl openly denounced him as a corrupt and profligate magistrate, and not only caused proceedings to be instituted against him and his partisans, who had shared the public spoil, but at one time proposed to send him a prisoner to England to undergo a criminal trial. These early and decisive proofs of the just and equitable character of the Earl of Bellomont, at once rendered him popular; and it may be said, that he became, in fact, although a nobleman of the highest rank, the leader of the democratic party in the province over which he had come to preside.

The Earl's commission included the provinces of New York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. The people of these two latter provinces, who had been harassed with every species of vexation under the rule of Andros and Dudley, anxiously looked for his arrival. The province of Connecticut had also suffered from the interference of Fletcher, the late governor of New York, and being desirous of conciliating the favor of Earl Bellomont, their general court, which was in session at the time of his arrival, appointed a deputation of the most distinguished characters to wait upon and congratulate him on his arrival. Trumbull says, that the committee discharged their trust with a dignity and address that greatly pleased the governor, and produced the most favorable impressions. The New Hampshire assembly, determined to obtain the ear of Lord Bellomont, even before his arrival had appointed a deputation to

wait upon him at New York. Their instructions to their agent were, that "if he should find his lordship high and reserved, and not easy of access, to employ some gentleman who was in his confidence, to manage the business; but if easy and free, he was to wait upon him in person, to tell him how joyfully they received the news of his appointment," &c.—But he was instructed further, in case the friends of Usher (the former lieutenant-governor of New Hampshire, and who was the head of a powerful party at the time) had got the start, "to observe what reception they met with. If his lordship was ready to come that way, he was to beg leave to attend him as far as Boston, and then ask his permission to return home." This mission, which shows the contrivers to have been no mean politicians, had the desired effect. The party who so promptly moved in this affair, were placed in power on the arrival of the Earl at Portsmouth.

The affairs of the colony of New York demanding the most vigilant attention, the governor did not visit New England until the year after his arrival. The peace of Ryswick, of 10th September, 1697, had interrupted hostilities between the English and French; but the governor of Canada, Frontignac, determined to prosecute his vengeance against the Iroquois, whom he refused to consider as embraced within the provisions of the treaty. The vigilance and energy of governor Bellomont frustrated the designs of Frontignac, and a short time after, peace was formally concluded between the French and the Five Nations.

Governor Bellomont first met the colonial legislature in session, on the 19th of May, 1698, and the line of policy which he had resolved to pursue was clearly indicated in his address on that occasion. "I cannot but observe to you," said he, "what a legacy my predecessor has left to me, and what difficulties to struggle with: a divided people, an empty treasury, a few miserable, naked, half-starved soldiers, not half the number the king allowed pay for; the fortifications and even the governor's house, very much out of repair; and, in a word, the whole government out of frame." Speaking of the necessity of economy in the public service, he says: "I will take care there shall be no misapplication of the public money. I will pocket none of it myself, nor shall there be any embezzlement of it by others, but exact accounts shall be given you."—He then urges upon them the importance of finding out some expedient to reconcile the contending parties in the province, declaring that he would esteem it "the glory of his government to bring so good a work to pass."—The assembly, however, were in no condition to profit by the sage counsels of the governor. In the recent election the enemies of Leisler had prevailed, and although the house agreed to a formal answer of eight lines to the governor's speech, they could

agree in scarcely anything else; and on the 14th June, the governor dissolved them. At the next election, the Leislerians were in the ascendant, and the governor, determined to have unity in his administration, dismissed several of the old counsellors. The business of the government now went on smoothly; laws were passed for the purity of elections, for providing a revenue, settling the salary of the governor, and also for indemnifying the families of Leisler and Milbourne and their adherents.

The most corrupt and extravagant grants had been obtained of the Indians by sundry prominent speculators in the province, countenanced by the former governor, which gave umbrage to the tribes, and were likely to prove injurious to the colony. These grants Earl Bellomont, on due representations at court, was empowered to vacate; and some of the more prominent agents in these frauds were severely punished.

In May, 1699, having been nearly fourteen months in the country, and having restored a degree of quiet to the province of New York, Lord Bellomont determined on visiting New England. He arrived at Boston on the 26th of the month. His reception was most cordial. A nobleman at the head of the government was a new thing. All ranks of people exerted themselves to show him respect, and the appearance was so flattering that his lordship thought it gave him every reason to expect a very liberal and honorable support from a province so well peopled and exhibiting tokens of so much affluence. He was affable and courteous on all occasions, taking pains to court the good will of the people. There was the most perfect harmony in the general court while he presided. By conciliating the good graces of the people, and ingratiating himself among all classes, he obtained a larger salary than any of his predecessors, receiving, during his stay in New England, of about fourteen months, grants to the amount of £1,875 sterling. Hutchinson remarks, however, that there was something unparliamentary in his proceedings in council, where he not only acted as their head in an executive, but also in a legislative capacity. He proposed business, recommended them to go into committees, when he would leave the chair, and mingle in their debates. He guided them as far as his influence extended, in every measure; and did not think it proper that they should act, as a house of parliament, in his absence. When absent, from any cause, he would send messages, advising their course of proceedings; and afterwards, if, on reflection, he deemed it necessary, he would exercise his power of reversing their proceedings! He was the first New England governor who introduced the custom of formal speeches, as the King's representative, to the two houses of the provincial legislature.

Earl Bellomont, immediately on his arrival in this country, had

learned the course taken by Kidd, and had heard of his bold and daring exploits. He accordingly concerted all possible measures to take the freebooter on his re-appearance on the coast. The public feeling in England was much excited by the accounts of his piracies; and there were not wanting those who attributed the conduct of Kidd to a concert among the parties to the adventure, although the king himself was one. Lord Bellomont felt that his honor, and that of the government, were deeply involved, and that the apprehension and punishment of the pirate was a step essential to their exculpation in the eyes of the world. Singular as it may appear—and from this fact some historians have come to the conclusion that he expected protection from Bellomont—Captain Kidd, while yet the officers of justice were in pursuit of him along the coast, made his appearance publicly in Boston, on the first of July, 1699, and some of his crew with him. As soon as this came to the knowledge of the governor, he sent for him, and examined him before the council. He was ordered to draw up forthwith a narrative of his proceedings, which he neglected to do, and on the 6th, was arrested and committed to prison.

From a report of the commissioners of trade and plantations, on the subject of Kidd's proceedings, it appears that Kidd, having made protestations of his innocency, had been promised protection by Bellomont, if he would make his innocence appear. In the report, it is stated:—

“Kidd came accordingly, and landed at Boston the first of July, 1699; but by his trifling answers to the Earl of Bellomont and council upon several examinations; by the endeavors of his friends, Campbell and Livingstone, to embezzle the cargo on board the sloop; by intimation given of an intended present; by Livingstone's peremptory demand that a bond and articles which he had entered into as security for Kidd, upon his undertaking this expedition, should be discharged; and by his threats that, unless those securities were immediately given up, Kidd would never bring in the great ship that he had left on the coast of Hispaniola; his lordship, finding it necessary to act more openly, caused Kidd, upon the 6th of July, to be seized and committed to prison.”*

Among Kidd's papers were found accounts of his buried treasures, and commissioners were appointed and sent off, who recovered large sums of money, besides jewels, &c., and delivered them to the

* See notice of “Kidd's salvage Company,” by “P. F.” in *National Intelligencer*, 22d Jan. 1845, in which the popular delusion touching Kidd's treasure, said to have been sunk at the foot of the Dunderburgh, is fully exposed. Those who wish to find interesting notices of Kidd's piracy, are referred to the articles by “P. F.” in the *National Intelligencer* of 19th Aug. 1842, 7th Aug. 1844, and of dates above cited, also an article by Hon. H. C. Murphy, in *Hunt's Merchants' Mag.*, vol. xiv. p. 29.

Earl. Kidd was a daring man, and boldly resisted the officers sent to seize him, but he was taken, confined in irons, and sent to England, with his comrades, in a man-of-war. He was tried at the old Bailey, on the 8th May, 1701, and soon afterwards executed.*

After having disposed of Kidd, the Earl set out on a visit to New Hampshire, where he arrived, and published his commission on the 31st July, 1699, at Portsmouth. The Council had previously voted him an address, and sent a committee, of which John Usher was one, to present it to him at Boston. He was welcomed with acclamation by the people, who now congratulated themselves that they had a nobleman at the head of the government, distinguished for his virtues, and who had no interest in oppressing them. He called the council and assembly together on the 7th August, and in his speech recommended sundry reforms, and while he remained in the province, exerted himself to quiet the disputes which had so long existed. The courts were re-organized, and other measures adopted, which were satisfactory to the people. The assembly voted him a gratuity of £500; and after a stay of eighteen days in the province, during which the people came in from the surrounding country in throngs to see him, and whom he treated with great attention and hospitality, he quitted the province and returned to Boston, leaving lieutenant-governor Partridge in charge of the government.

Earl Bellomont, as has already been stated, with the generosity of an Irishman, immediately on reaching his government in New York, espoused the cause of those who had been oppressed under the prior administrations of Sloughter and Fletcher. The factions of those fallen politicians were, of course, bitter in their resentments against the Earl, and were not slow in finding matter of reproach in his conduct towards Kidd. During the absence of governor Bellomont in New England, these persons busied themselves in forwarding the designs of the former governor, Fletcher, who was then in England, endeavoring to effect the removal of the Earl. Among the "Heads of Complaint against the Earl of Bellomont, in his Government of New York," thirty-two in number,† which were sent out to the king in 1699, are found the following specifications:

"3. After the dissolution of the assembly, his lordship, in order

* The tradition has been, that his execution was a *sham*—that the parties who were originally concerned with Kidd as a privateer, were so closely connected with him in his later proceedings, that to prevent an exposure, it was so contrived that "a man of straw" was executed in his stead. But one of the journals of that day states, that when Kidd was hung, "the rope he was first tied up with broke, and being taken up alive, he was for some time permitted to converse with the ordinary, and then tied up again." So that he must have been something more than a mere man of straw. Kidd was hung at Execution Dock, 23d May, 1701. Queen Anne, in 1705, gave his effects (£6,472) to Greenwich Hospital.

† MSS. New York Historical Society.

to procure sheriffs, and consequently an assembly to their own humor, garbled the council, and upon foolish pretences suspended ten of the most considerable for estates, and parts and experience in business, viz., Col. Bayard, Col. Minveile, Col. Willett, Col. Heathcote, &c., and placed six of the Leislerian party in their room, viz. Abraham De Peyster, a merchant, Sam. Skaats, a Dutch barber-surgeon, John Carboyle, a mountebank, Robert Livingston, a Scotchman, the contriver of Kidd's piratical voyages," &c.

"29. He, having got two of Kidd's crew in custody, viz. one Buckmaster, an Englishman, and Van Tayt, a Dutchman, committed the *Englishman* to prison without bail, and admitted the *Dutchman* to bail."

"30. He has committed one Clark to prison without bail, upon suspicion of having some goods of Kidd's in his custody, only because he had been about Kidd's vessel."

"32. The Earl of Bellomont, in justification to these proceedings, *calumniates the people of New York of being pirates and favorers of piracy*, and breaking the acts of navigation; whereas it is evident that but one ship for sixteen years past came from thence on a piratical voyage, and that was pretended to be commissioned by Leisler. 'Tis true, *that several ships have had some trade to Madagascar for negroes, and some of them have lately met with India goods, which they bought at easy rates, and transmitted to New York.*"

The little importance which the Earl attached to these intrigues of his adversaries, and the estimate in which his character was held by the Government at home, may be seen from the following extracts from his private correspondence:

"*Boston, 22 January, 1700.* I hear the Jacobite party of New York have named a new governor before the king has thought fit to name one; and I am also told that they lay wagers that I shall not go any more to New York; but, for all that, I desire you will bespeak me two pipes of good ale, and two pipes of small beer at Albany or Schenectady, which I would have laid in at New York against my going thither."

"*Boston, 5 February, 1700.* The Advice, man-of-war, a fourth-rate, Capt. Wyman, commander, arrived here last Saturday, in six weeks from Portsmouth, *and brought me orders from the king to send home all the pirates and their effects.* The ministers continue to write to me with equal kindness, and tell me the king is very well pleased with my administration in my governments. If the angry gentlemen at New York have their intelligence from any better hands than the king's ministers, or of later date than the 10th December, then I shall believe they are very deep in the secrets of the cabinet. What pleases the king, pleases me."*

* MSS. New York Historical Society—Bellomont Papers.

Soon after the close of the session of the General Court in May, 1700, Lord Bellomont took leave of his Massachusetts government, and returned to New York. Here matters being in a quiet state, little was done by the governor, except to superintend the improvements of the city. He encouraged the erection of a new City Hall in Wall Street, by giving the stones of the bastions of the old fortifications which once extended on the line of Wall Street, nearly across the island.

About this time the friends and adherents of Leisler and Milbourne disinterred their coffins and removed their remains from the spot where they had been buried as malefactors, to the Dutch Church in Garden Street, where they were entombed with every mark of respect. This proceeding, which was countenanced by the governor, gave great offence to the enemies of Leisler, who still cherished feelings of enmity to his memory. Among the "Heads of Complaint" sent out to the king, the fact that he countenanced this proceeding, is urged as a grave complaint against his administration.

But another act, of far greater consequence, and one which would, unless we carefully consider the circumstances out of which it arose, cast a deep shade upon the fair fame of Bellomont—his enemies dared not disapprove, so united was the public sentiment on the subject. We refer now to the law of New York, passed in August, 1700, against the Catholic priests. The act was entitled, "An Act against Jesuits and Popish priests." The preamble expressly charges that "divers Jesuits, Priests and Popish Missionaries, have of late industriously labored to debauch, seduce, and withdraw the Indians from their obedience, and to excite and stir them up to sedition, rebellion, and open hostility," &c. Therefore it was enacted, "That every Jesuit and Seminary, Priest, Missionary, or other Spiritual or Ecclesiastical Person," acting under authority of the Pope or See of Rome, should depart from the Province before the first of November, 1700; that any such person found remaining in the province after said first of November, should be liable to perpetual imprisonment, and to death, if taken after having escaped from prison! The New England laws against the Quakers scarcely went farther than this.

This law against the Jesuits was a severe one: and to us, of the present generation, who behold the cross of the Roman Catholic churches standing among the spires of Protestant edifices of every denomination in our cities, it would seem cruel and unaccountable. But the history of that period shows it to have been rather a measure of state policy, than of persecution. There was a wide-spread horror of popery, it is true; but this alone would not have led to the enactment of so sanguinary a law. The cause is more likely

to be found in the well-known tampering of the Catholic priests with the Indians. It had become notorious, that the northern tribes had been excited by Jesuit emissaries to murder the English inhabitants; and the terrible scenes at Schenectady and other places, directly attributable to the influence of the Romish priests, were still fresh in the recollections of the people. Their legislators, therefore, in directing their penalties against the priests, imagined that they were warding off the blows of the tomahawk.

During the remainder of Earl Bellomont's administration, he was sedulously engaged in treating with the Indians, and in plans for the improvement of the city, and the increase and prosperity of the colony. While occupied in these endeavors, he was suddenly taken ill, and expired on the 5th March, 1701, at the age of 65.—He was buried with becoming honors, the populace of the whole city turning out to join the funeral procession, which was directed by the city authorities. His remains were interred in the chapel of the fort, at the Battery; but afterwards, when the fort was taken down, and the Battery leveled in 1790, the leaden coffin was removed, and finally deposited in St. Paul's churchyard. A few days after the death of the Earl, his coat of arms, carried in state, was placed in front of the new City Hall; but on the arrival of his successor, Lord Cornbury, in 1702, it was torn down, and, Dunlap says, "destroyed by the aristocracy."

So much esteemed was the Earl in Massachusetts, that when the news of his death was received in Boston, the assembly recommended a general fast throughout the province.

Earl Bellomont, in 1660, was married to Catharine, daughter and heiress of John Nanfan, Esq., of Birch Morton, in the county of Worcester, and had issue two sons, Nanfan and Richard, successive Earls of Bellomont. The Countess of Bellomont, soon after the Earl's decease, returned to England, and died at the family seat in the county of Sligo, 12th March, 1728, in the 90th year of her age.

J. B. M.

HISTORICAL ROOMS, *New York.*

YUCATAN.

[We have been favored with this interesting and vivid description of Yucatan by a distinguished gentleman who was formerly minister from the United States to one of the southern republics, and has traveled much in Mexico and in South America. The article is peculiarly appropriate at the present time.]

Insurrection and civil war, revolution and bloodshed, with all their attendant horrors, have brought this interesting country,—its misfortunes and its crimes, its desolations and its destiny, directly under the eye of the reading world, and the thrilling scenes of conflict and disaster between the races, recently enacted on that ill-fated soil, so cruel and sanguinary, have imparted to its history at the present crisis a more than ordinary interest.

While all Europe is rocking to its very centre with revolutionary fires, and the march of liberty seems to be everywhere bearing down the strongholds of despotism, the Indian warriors of the Pampas and mountains of Yucatan have caught up the spirit of the age, and, with their invading hosts, assumed the mastery over the ruling dynasty of that Peninsula.

So devastating was the first blow struck, and so unexpected to the people, as to force them to cry out for help from a quarter capable of extending it, and worthy of its bestowment. Everything relating to that people, its settlements, its institutions and races, as well as its recent awful catastrophes, must be found acceptable to the general reader at the present juncture; and it is with the view, briefly, to afford an agreeable sketch of some of the more prominent incidents of its history, that the writer has sought for a small space in this work.

Yucatan, the early victim of Mexican despotism, fluctuation and change, is situated on the eastern extremity of Mexico, between the gulf and the Caribbean Sea, lying between the 18th and 21st degrees of north latitude, and between the 87th and 91st of west longitude.

The states of Tabasco, Chiapa, and Vera Paz, are found upon its immediate southern border, as also that of the British territory of Honduras. In length, it is a little over 250 miles, and its average breadth about 200, embracing an area of 50,000 square miles.

The population of the peninsula was estimated to exceed half a million, prior to the late civil war, and is mainly composed of mixed races, similar in complexion and character to those of other portions of Mexico. Yucatan is one great plain, with a range of mountains running through its centre 4,000 feet in height. It has no mines of value or magnitude, and but little commerce.

It is divided into fifteen governmental departments. Its chief towns are Merida (the capital), Campeachy, Valladolid, Vittoria and Bacalar.—Merida, Campeachy and Valladolid, are places of some note. The population of Merida is about 20,000, that of Campeachy 7,000, and Valladolid 25,000. The latter is delightfully situated upon an eminence many thousand feet above the level of the sea. Its streets are wide, neat and clean, with a fine plaza in the Spanish style near its centre. Campeachy has an excellent harbor, and is strongly fortified. The original flat is surrounded by a high wall, but the growth and progress of the city have overleaped the ancient fortifications, and a great portion of the inhabitants now reside outside of the walls. The breastworks of the city are extremely strong, and so arranged as to enable its defenders to pour a raking fire from the numerous cannon stationed at each corner upon an approaching enemy, with deadly effect. As usual in all Spanish towns, however inconsiderable, Campeachy has several Catholic churches, dating back to another age, whose lofty towers meet the eye of the weary-worn traveler long before he reaches the shore. These, and the municipality of Santa Anna, a short distance from the principal cluster of buildings, are the most attractive of any of the scenes that immediately arrest the attention in this little city of Spanish idlers. Recently, the military, of which there are some thousands in the city, have been kept quite busy here in trenching and ditching for defence. The *Paseo* is a beautiful walk, on which much money and labor have been lavished, at the farther end of which is a splendid garden, of which our present American consul, Mr. M'Gregor, is the owner and occupant. But what imparts the most glowing beauty to all these tropical regions, is the loftiness of its forest trees, of which the cocoanut is the most commanding. Here, the orange and the lemon are clothed in evergreen, and bend beneath their heavy loads of luxuriant fruit, while the plantain and the banana, the almond and the fig, the date and the shady palm, intertwine their enlivening foliage to freshen and perfume the air, and to give the admiring sojourner, as it would seem, a foretaste of Paradise. But these enchanting groves of tropical magnificence, blooming with such unfading verdure in the garden of nature, are the gift of an Almighty hand, and can receive no embellishment from man.

It might naturally be supposed that a country so bountifully blessed in native beauty and loveliness, would meet with a correspondent pride and spirit in its population. Of *pride*, these intermingled races have an abundance, but they are wretchedly destitute of all that national spirit and industry so essential to their prosperity and success. This designation is, however, more peculiarly applicable to the men than to the women of this peninsula. The latter, especially those of the higher classes of the cities and *haciendas*,

are usually well educated, social and gay. Many of them are expert with the needle, and none seem to be above the use of it for the benefit of the family circle. Of their beauty, various opinions have been expressed. In complexion they are generally swarthy, with sparkling black eyes, small feet, and splendid forms. The real Castilian ladies (of which there are few in these climes) possess fine, clear skins, and have a gayety of manner, which clearly indicates that they feel themselves of superior blood. Their dresses, like most of those of the sex within the tropics, are light and thin, fitting loosely to the form, but presenting an appearance of neatness and taste for which the Spanish are so celebrated throughout the world. There is such a native dignity and elegance in the manners of the real Spanish lady, such an air of ease and grace in her appearance, so free and so unstudied, as to command universal admiration among all who make her acquaintance—and even among the *men* of the higher orders of society, pride of dress and display of costume seem to be the ruling passion, while that great national characteristic, Spanish hospitality, which bids every stranger welcome, and puts every visitor at his ease, never forsakes his fireside, when in his power to oblige you. But this remark is only applicable to those of high Castilian descent; for among the middle and lower orders, there is a prevalent jealousy of all strangers, as well as a mean and selfish envy of all superiors. Many of the lower vices, the natural consequences of an indolent life, degrade the mass of this people, particularly the Creoles and Indians. The gaming table is the common resort, and money is lost, and fortunes ruined with as little apparent effect upon the loser, as if he were reveling at a banquet.

The Indians here are little better than slaves. They are the drudges, literally the beasts of burden of the country. They are a numerous class in many portions of the peninsula, and their numbers are such as often to occasion great distrust and uneasiness in the government. Ignorant and degraded, without enterprise, and without industry, they have neither the knowledge necessary to a radical change of their condition, nor the disposition to effect it. Hence an almost remediless state of semi-barbarism prevails throughout all that benighted region, which, if in other and worthier hands, might be made to “bud and blossom as the rose.”

Until recently, Yucatan has been but little known. Its ancient ruins, and the evidences found there of an earlier civilization, have of late taxed the descriptive in American literature, and we now understand much of its internal history and civil institutions. That distinguished traveler and antiquarian, Mr. STEPHENS of New York, has presented the world with all that seems particularly worthy of note concerning the ancient ruins, tablets, hieroglyphics, images,

statues, idols and altars of Guatamala and Yucatan. The same felicitous writer was the first to open up to the reading community a knowledge of the manners, customs, habits, and peculiar traits of character prevailing in that hitherto benighted corner of creation, the secluded peninsula of Yucatan—and his many happy delineations of the innumerable curiosities, and the very full detail made of the striking incidents of its history, were very faithfully seconded by Mr. NORMAN of New Orleans, the well known author of “*Rambles in Yucatan.*” Their respective works have met with a wide circulation throughout this country, and their historic reminiscences will need no repetition in the notice now taken of that picturesque portion of the globe.

The productions of Yucatan are few. The indolence of the population is the main cause of their want of prosperity. But little is annually raised, while the people are blessed with a soil capable of yielding nearly every variety common to the most prosperous countries of the world. Its exports are now quite trifling, even more so than when an active trade prevailed between Yucatan and Cuba. Some portions of the mountain districts suffer greatly for the want of water. In several of the central parts, not a living stream is to be found; and the dependence of the people inhabiting these sterile regions, is often upon what alone falls from the heavens. This is so severely felt in some seasons as to drive these wretched victims of want and destitution to seek a miserable subsistence from the wild roots and herbs of the mountains. To many, such a calamity is fatal. Disease and death mark these victims of misery, and a premature grave closes over them. Scenes like these are of no uncommon occurrence in particular seasons and locations.

The principal articles of trade and culture in Yucatan are Campeachy wood, hides, maize, corn, cotton, rice, tobacco, pepper and sugar. Besides these, another important element of wealth might be very successfully introduced. Hemp and flax for cordage, articles whose use would be found of immense value throughout the world, if properly cultivated and matured, could be very extensively raised here, and with the greatest facility—and may now be considered among the leading articles of export from the peninsula, along with its cedars and dyewoods. Cattle also abound here in great profusion, and many fine horses feed and fatten on the wild pastures of the hills and plains.

The laws of Yucatan are liberal to emigrants, tendering a large bounty in lands to all who may take up a residence among her people. Many of our English grains, the growth of more northern latitudes, might be successfully introduced into this part of the tropics, and cultivated to great advantage. Time will probably push aside the many clustering obstacles that seem now to hover over

her destiny, and to intercept her march to honor and distinction. Yucatan needs the invigorating spirit of the age to awaken her to a just sense of her own importance. That indomitable perseverance which marks the Anglo-Saxon wherever he wanders, is unknown among the mountains and vales and plains of Yucatan. Although generally blessed with a various and productive soil, with one of the mildest of tropical climes, its common aspect is that of a barren waste, blessed, it is true, with a majestic and picturesque scenery, but yielding little to the hand of culture. What an opening for the enterprise of some of our hardy adventurers, more inured to all the toils and hardships of regions usually less promising, and less productive! Some portions of this peninsula, it must be admitted, however, rank as the poorest soil in Mexico; but as *a whole*, it is undoubtedly an error so to pronounce it. There are parts of it, which, in fertility, would scarcely yield to the richest of Mexican soil, or to that of any other country.

When the Island of Cuba was in active intercourse with the people of this peninsula, much more attention was paid to the cultivation of its principal staples than now. But this was finally cut off, and new men and measures directed portions of its annual exports to other channels. The climate, it is true, is somewhat variable. At particular seasons, no certainty exists as to the annual crops, and this is regarded as a common calamity, though in some degree within the reach of a remedy. A thorough and careful husbandry would cure much of the evil.

The government of this tributary state revolted from that of Mexico in 1829, entirely separating itself from all parental control; and conflicting opinions often, since that period, kindled up a devouring flame between its people and those of the central power. It ripened to maturity in 1841, when they proclaimed their independence of Mexican authority,—and, with some efficient aid since afforded from Texas, they have thus far successfully resisted every attempt at Mexican subjugation. But a fate yet more threatening and disastrous has recently awaited this unfortunate country—a fate no less calamitous than the ravages of *civil war*. This terrible tragedy opened with the most fearful violence, and with the most awful and appalling results. Early tidings of butcheries and conflagrations reached this country, and awakened a general sympathy. The history is brief. The sad tale of these calamities found its way into every press, and reached every American heart; but the story of sufferings, however agonizing, can be but “the shadow of a shade” to the reality. The disastrous attack of the Indians upon the unsuspecting whites was officially brought to the notice of our executive early in the past spring, by the accredited minister from that country, the Hon. JUSTO SIERRA, who made a

most feeling appeal to the government for its intervention. That appeal touched a chord whose vibrations were deeply felt in every bosom; and by none more so than by the President of the United States, who made an early communication on the subject to the two Houses of Congress. The promptness with which this decisive step was taken by our present chief magistrate, was evincive of that deep fellow feeling with which his sympathies were inspired in behalf of the wretched victims struggling, and falling in the terrible conflict then enacting on the slaughter field of Yucatan. A discussion was opened upon the subject of parties, and party divisions in that distracted government,—and the inquiry, perhaps, was properly interposed, how far it became our neutrality as a nation to interfere in a contest between contending races and factions for supremacy and power. The greatest statesmen, and the ablest of our public men, have been found in conflict on this subject; nor is it the province or the wish of the writer to intrude an opinion as to which was right or which was wrong. It is only essential to treat of facts as we find them; and a brief allusion to the bloody scenes of conflict in that distracted country will suffice our present purpose.

Soon after the appeal of Mr. SIERRA, which quite fully recapitulated the awful events of the sanguinary revolt up to that period, the disasters of that horrible scene of desolation and havoc opened afresh upon their victims of vengeance, and the few inhabitants who fortunately escaped instant massacre, flew for their lives to the mountain fastnesses, and the ocean side. The Indians, led on by that intrepid and infuriate savage warrior of the wild, Jacinto Pat, closely following up their successes, laid waste everything before them. So wanton and cruel were the butcheries of these demoniac outlaws, that they indiscriminately put to death all that bore not the red skin of the savage, and the shrieks of the women and children seemed but the song of delight to the fiends who reveled in their blood. No relief at hand—no pitying eye upon them, they soon sank resistless beneath the blow of the assailant, with the cry of “God and mercy” upon their lips.

Yielding to this irresistible march of ruin and slaughter, a capitulation was proposed by the whites, through the governor Barbachano, and terms were agreed upon; but before the ink was hardly dry upon these stipulations, the merciless hordes of *Pat* rushed upon the defenceless and wealthy towns of Iturbide, Zibalchen and Mani, putting every living creature within their reach to death. No resistance except the weak and ineffectual attempt of Col. Boquiro to protect the devoted victims at Iturbide, was made to these desperate and bloody invaders; and he was compelled to fall back upon Campeachy, defeated and in despair, without succor and without hope. These facts, as I am aware, have met with some contradiction, and

the allegation has been strongly made that the whites, and not the Indians, were the first to violate the treaty; that the Indians entered Iturbide peacefully, and with good intentions; that they were kindly received, and were disposed to order and quiet, until Boquiro, at the head of a party of Campeachan troops, had, in the face of the treaty, and the remonstrances of the white inhabitants of the town, forcibly expelled them from the place. But this statement has always needed confirmation. It seems to stand directly opposed to the communication of Mr. Sierra, the representative of the government, to whose relation of facts the people of this country are bound to give credit. He has ever shown himself awake to the misfortunes of his people. He asked for arms, for ammunition, for help, in the sad hour of disaster, for his poor and suffering countrymen, unable to purchase the means of protection, and who were threatened with annihilation. The documents communicated to the Senate by the President, will fully exhibit all the essential facts in reference to the entire difficulties referred to, and truly explain everything in regard to the capitulation and its violation. As late as the 10th of May last, the Indians had penetrated far into the main settlements, and the whole range of country between Cilan and Cape Cotoeche, as also between Cotoeche and Bacalar, was under their arbitrary control. This march seemed to be followed, everywhere, with a succession of victories and triumphs. No *intervention* coming to the aid of the whites, their condition was for a time apparently most hopeless and deplorable. Some relief was, however, temporarily afforded through the energies of our naval commander, Commodore PERRY, who had been ordered to visit the coast of Yucatan for its protection. To the extent of his limited means, he went to their relief. By order of our energetic and devoted Secretary of the Navy, all arms and munitions of war were to be admitted free into the ports of the Peninsula, and the entire marine force at Alvarado were directed to Laguna, with instructions to repel any attack of the Indians should they attempt, with hostile intentions, to approach that point—but the equipment and force were not then considered sufficient to justify an advance into the interior of the country. The naval force of our gulf squadron had recently been too much weakened by the withdrawal of several of our vessels of war, to allow of that effective aid which in such an emergency was so desirable, and which the then crying wants and distresses of those houseless wanderers so loudly demanded. The lurking savage was then in his ambush, watching for his prey, with no strong arm to check his depredations.

The distracted inhabitants of the plains, hills and valleys, bewildered and in despair, knew not whither to fly, or where to seek for

safety, and every mountain dell was made to resound with the shrieks of innocence. Scenes the most appalling on which the eye of humanity ever rested, marked the blood-stained track of Indian *Pat* wherever the whoop of his merciless banditti was heard. Some flew to the mountains, some to the sea shore, and some yet more hopeless, drifting far away upon the ocean wave, left all to God and his mercy for their deliverance. Hundreds and thousands of flying families from the interior, crowded into the cities and towns along the coast, poor, penniless, and in absolute destitution, craving protection against the uplifted hand of the savage. Nearly ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND of these forlorn wretches sought an asylum from the wild fury of the storm in the city of Merida, whose bishops and clergy having been spared their lives, on the promise of instant flight, immediately threw open the spacious catholic convents of the capital for the protection of the starving fugitives. Here, though temporarily sheltered from the knife and the bayonet, the horrid spectre of pestilence and famine was before them. Crammed into promiscuous heaps, fathers and mothers, wives and children, huddled together in the then humbled capital of their country, while an unrestrained and unmitigated war of carnage and desolation raged around, what must have been their sensations! what but an abiding faith in the interposition of the Most High, and in that philanthropic spirit of the world, which seeks the relief of suffering and distress wherever found, could have dispelled the deep gloom of an hour so disastrous and threatening. The day of their entire destruction, it seems, had not yet come. As a people, they have at length the prospect of relief. We offered them a helping hand. We tendered them our aid and our protection, and before their full realization, a gleam of light broke in upon the oppressed. The star of hope is now upon their path, and at the latest intelligence, the Indians had, in various conflicts and battles, been successfully foiled and driven back. The tide seems to be changed, the current of events to be turned, and the hearts of many will unite in the prayer, that deliverance and permanent peace may be secured to Yucatan.

J. A. B.

WASHINGTON, *August*, 1848.

TENURE OF LAND.

We have received an able and valuable article on this subject from a friend, who is particularly averse to all visionary schemes and disorganizing movements: so much so, that his views on another deeply absorbing subject, which were characterized as "frankly and eloquently expressed by the distinguished writer," were published by a prominent journal, for the purpose of allaying popular feeling. Our business is mainly with facts, and we therefore make room for this communication, which is intrinsically valuable for its facts, and for its clear statement of results, derived from a comparison of nation with nation, and of the past with the present. We have been obliged, in consequence of the large amount of history and documents in this number, to divide the article, and will give the remainder in our next. The subject is divided into three parts—facts relating to the tenure of land in Europe and America; the tenure of land in Hindostan, Egypt, Palestine, and in ancient Greece, Rome, and Hispania; and, lastly, a comparison drawn and the subject discussed in accordance with the opinion expressed by Mr. Webster, when speaking of the subdivision of property, that "what is lost in individual wealth will be more than gained in numbers, in intelligence, and in sympathy of sentiment."

To the Editor of the American Quarterly Register.

In your last number, at p. 28, you remarked that "it is still a mooted question in political economy, whether it is the wiser policy to multiply the number of landholders by subdividing real estate without limit, as is done in France, or to check such subdivisions by rights of primogeniture and other policy of law, so as to secure the advantage of larger farms, as in England." I have collected some facts and information bearing upon this subject, which may help to solve the important question stated by you, and cannot but prove interesting and instructive to your readers, however they may vary in the conclusions they arrive at.

A. G. J.

ALBANY, August, 1848.

1. *Tenure of Land in Europe.*

My first inquiry will be into the condition of a people among whom the feudal system was never but partially introduced, the Scandinavians.

An eminent writer, in describing this remarkable race of men,

gives the following account of the early divisions of property among the Norwegians:—

“At this period Norway was divided into a number of independent states, each under its chieftain or king; whose authority, however, was far from being unlimited, all public affairs being decided at the general assemblies of the freemen, who gave their assent to a measure by striking their shields with their drawn swords. These freemen, or *thengsmen*, as they were called, were the landed proprietors of the country, and their sons and kindred. The tenure of land in Norway was then, as we believe it still continues to be, strictly allodial. The *odalsman*, or *dominus allodialis*, whether he held extensive domains or only a few acres, *could not alienate the land*. At his death it was equally divided amongst his children, or next of kin; and at a later and more civilized period, when legal right became better defined, any one who could establish his relationship with the original proprietor might evict a person who had acquired an estate once belonging to the family, without having any allodial claim to it.”*

“All *odalsmen* were regarded as freemen, and constituted a privileged class. Another class was that of the so-called *unfree*; under which negative denomination were included laborers, artisans, and others, who enjoyed personal freedom, *but had no political rights*; that is to say, were not *thengsmen*. They were, however, entitled to bear arms; and most of the opulent land-owners, or allodial lords, the real nobility of the country, had a number of them in their service as armed retainers. After these came the freedmen, or manumitted slaves; and, last of all, the slaves themselves, or thralls, to whom the law afforded no protection whatsoever. Their masters might dispose of them as they thought proper, and even kill them with impunity. These thralls were generally captives taken in war; who, if not ransomed by their friends, were sold in regular slave-markets.”

“In 863, Harold Harfragar, having made himself master of the whole of Norway, became, in fact, king; and one of his first measures was to introduce a kind of feudal system. He accordingly made it known that all the allodial property in the country belonged to the crown, and that those who wished to retain possession of their estates would thenceforward have to pay a land-tax.”

Throughout Sweden, Norway, Iceland, and Finland, the same system of landholding, substantially, prevails at the present day. A few nobles possess nearly all the land, and the peasantry are but little better than slaves.

“In Iceland, a chieftain who had taken possession of a piece of land, and erected a temple, was called a *godi*, or *hofgodi*; and all

* Mallet's Northern Antiquities, p. 277.

to whom he had allotted land were bound to accompany him on his journeys, and to pay a tax for the support of the temple. We find these sacerdotal magistrates appearing at the public assemblies with a number of armed followers; not retainers, but *odal-born* freemen. When they went on their private affairs they were generally accompanied by their retainers and guests; and we rarely met with an instance of a *godí* or a wealthy landowner going out alone. The whole frame of society in Iceland was, in fact, essentially aristocratic. The laws only recognized four classes, as in Norway—freemen, unfree, freedmen, and thralls; but among the freemen themselves a distinction was made between the *godar*, or pontiff chieftains, and the opulent landed proprietors called *stormenn*, or magistrates, who had also taken possession of extensive territories, and allotted land to their followers; and a still greater distinction between these and the less wealthy freeholders, to whom, generally speaking, land had been allotted.”*

We need quote no authority to prove the condition of all the agricultural population of Russia, Esthonia, Lithuania, Livonia, Podolia, Volhynia, Poland, Gallicia, and indeed all that part of the world inhabited by the Sclavonian tribes. The owners of the soil constitute a privileged nobility. The cultivators of the land are all serfs, except perhaps a very few of the poorest landholders, who are not too proud to work, or who are too poor to be idle, or too independent to be the humble retainers of the great and rich,—the serfs are bought and sold with the land, and the value of an estate is estimated as much according to the number of serfs as acres. Throughout the whole of the vast region lying between the Baltic and Mediterranean seas, and extending eastward over the frozen realms of the Russian bear, † inhabited by the Sclavonian race, all the agricultural laborers, numbering probably 75,000,000 of human beings, are serfs, with the exception of the single principality of Wallachia, where the serfs were set free by a viceroy of the Sultan of Turkey, Constantine Mavrocordato.

A French author says:

“There are still in Europe vast countries, which have never acknowledged any other principle of succession than the allodial; and in which, consequently, the experiment of hereditary divisions has been going on for a long series of ages and generations; we refer to the nations of Sclavonian origin. In these countries the possession of lands was, in fact, exclusively reserved to the nobility; but as the sole restriction upon the equality of the rights attributed to

* Mallet's Northern Antiquities, p. 290.

† There are 40,000,000 of serfs in Great Russia—the largest slave population in the world—bought and sold with the soil. The peasantry held the free disposal of their persons until the reign of Boris, in 1598, who made a law by which the peasant became the slave of the noble and bound to the soil.

the children of the same parents, in the matter of inheritance, consisted in the custom of allowing the daughters only the fourth part in value of the immovables belonging to the paternal succession, everything seemed to tend the more to the establishment of an equality of fortunes, that the despised exercise of the industrial professions did not offer to the members of the privileged class any means of changing their respective positions. But the result was far otherwise. In no country has the inequality of wealth become more excessive than among the nobles of Poland and Russia. In Poland, especially, when the nobility were very numerous, and when five domains only had been entailed, some houses acquired a royal opulence, and the greater part of the others fell into complete indigence. There are still reckoned, at the present day, one hundred and fifty thousand nobles in the ancient provinces of Podolia and Volhynia; and almost the entire territory of those countries is concentrated in the hands of not more than fifty families.

“Some of the Hungarian domains, those of Prince Esterhazy, for instance, are entailed and inherited according to the law of primogeniture, but the tenure that generally prevails is like that of Norway. Every manor in Hungary was originally bestowed by the crown, and at the death of the last legitimate descendant of the person to whom it was granted, becomes again crown property.

“Each of the fifty-five districts or counties into which Hungary is divided, has its *theng* (county congregation), at which public affairs are discussed, as in ancient Scandinavia, by all the *odalmen* or *thengmen* in the district; a man possessing but a single rood of allodial land having the same vote and the same rights and privileges as the proprietor of the most extensive domains.”

Throughout nearly all the Austrian and Prussian dominions, and in Germany, Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland, the peasantry and cultivators of the soil are either serfs, or feudal tenants.

There is a most remarkable and interesting exception to this general fact in Austrian Tyrol, and the following description of the condition of the people, and the tenure by which their lands are held, is taken from Alison's History of Europe, an author who will not be suspected of any democratic predilections, or agrarian opinions.

“In the German Tyrol, *the peasantry are almost all owners of the land they cultivate*; A STATE OF THINGS OF ALL OTHERS THE MOST FAVORABLE TO SOCIAL HAPPINESS when not brought about by the spoliation of others, and accompanied by a tolerable administration of government. It is much less so on the Italian side of the mountains; there great proprietors, with their attendant evils of non-resident gentry and resident middlemen, are to be found. Hence in a great degree, as well as in the original difference of race, the wide distinction between these two great divisions of country in the

character and independence of the people. Their look, their customs, their character, are essentially distinct; in the German Tyrol are to be seen a national dress, primitive usages, early hours, intrepid resolution; in the Italian, polished manners, an harmonious accent, opulent cities, selfish craft, enervating luxury. The population of the German is nearly four times that of the Italian descent; and in all struggles for freedom, or independence, though the latter has not been wanting in energetic characters, the weight of the contest has fallen upon the Gothic race.

“To complete the picture of this highly interesting people, it is only necessary to observe, that they are all frugal and industrious, that domestic manufactures are to be found in many of their cottages, and valuable salt mines at Halt, on the Lower Inn, but that the great reliance of the people is on the resources of agriculture. THE WONDERFUL EFFECT OF A GENERAL DIFFUSION OF PROPERTY IN STIMULATING THE EFFORTS OF INDUSTRY IS NOWHERE MORE CONSPICUOUS; the grass which grows on the sides of the declivities too steep for pastures is carefully cut for the cattle; the atmospheric action on rocks is rendered serviceable by conveying their debris to cultivated fields, and the stranger sometimes observes with astonishment a Tyrolese peasant, with a basket in his hand, descending inaccessible rocks by means of a rope, in order that he may gain a few feet of land at the bottom, and devote it to agriculture. All the family labor at the little paternal estate; the daughters tend the cows, or bring in the grass; the sons work with the father in the field, or carry on some species of manufacture within doors.”

Italy, since the downfall of Rome, has been divided into several states, which have as often been at war with each other, as with the rest of the world. Florence, Venice and Genoa were the first to emerge from the waters of barbarism with which the Roman empire had been deluged. But the glory which learning and the arts have shed upon their history, cannot conceal the truth that the government of all these states was a selfish, cruel and arbitrary oligarchy. The cultivators of the soil, the peasants of Italy, have received no personal or political benefit from their governments, and not one of the thousand battles that have been decided upon her plains has been fought in their cause, nor has the result made their condition better or worse. The nobility own all the land and its tillers are serfs, or tenants with no more real liberty than serfs.

We have now to speak of France and England, and when we say that in them the feudal system was early established, we have no need of explaining what it was, and what have been its results for good and for evil—everybody knows that the feudal system was a system of landholding.

In France it existed till 1792, when the Constituent Assembly

tore it up by the roots, and the fires of the Revolution burned out every fibre of it from the soil.

In England it still exists, and the landholding aristocracy control the government. The house of Lords is really a body of great landholders, although they have admitted into their number a few lords of the spinning jenny and rolling mill.

All the inhabitants of Great Britain are personally free, but in Scotland and Ireland the mass of the agricultural laborers are miserably poor and wretched, and have no more share in the government of the country than the serfs of Russia. In its application to them the language of royalty is strictly true—They are not citizens but subjects.—In England also the rents are so exorbitantly high that very few farmers obtain more than a bare subsistence.

In France under the feudal system the land was all monopolized by the king, lords, and clergy, but as the feudal tenure was not so closely fastened upon the soil as in England, there occurred periods where there was a partial diffusion of land among the people. Let us see what M. Michelet says of these periods:

“About the year 1500, for instance, when France, exhausted by Louis XI., seems about to consummate her ruin in Italy, the nobles who accompany the army are obliged to sell; the land passing into new hands all at once teems with plenty; men work and build. This moment of prosperity (to speak in the accredited style of monarchical history) is called *the good Louis XII.*

“Unhappily it is but momentary. Scarcely has the land been brought into heart before the screw of taxation is applied; the religious wars follow and threaten to strip even the very earth—a time of fearful misery, of famine, in which mothers devour even their own children! Who could suppose the country would recover? Nevertheless hardly are the wars over, than from these ravaged fields and black and smoking huts come forth the peasant’s savings. He buys; in ten years the face of France is changed; in twenty, or thirty, the land is doubled and trebled in value. This movement, also baptized with a royal name, is called *the good Henry IV.*—and the great Richelieu.”

But the Revolution introduced into France a new system. The law was altered so that all the children, male and female, inherited equally, and the power of disposing of real estate by last will and testament was limited. The object of the new code was to promote a distribution of the land, and increase the number of proprietors. Previous to the Revolution the number of proprietors was but a few thousands; since that event, it has increased to several millions.

But while in the twenty years previous to 1826, the population of France increased fourteen per cent., the number of proprietors only increased eight per cent.; from which it follows that the number of

proprietors in proportion to the population has diminished two and a half per cent. The increase of population has been chiefly in the cities and manufacturing districts. The subdivision and distribution of the soil has gone on rapidly, and the number of owners of real estate in proportion to the whole population is greater than in the United States.

Whatever the political economists of England may write upon this subject, the French themselves, with the exception of a few of the legitimist school, have no desire to go back to the old system.

Let us hear M. Michelet again.

“The mass, no doubt is neither pure nor irreproachable; but if you wish to characterize them by the dominant idea, which occupies the minds of the vast majority, it is that of accomplishing by labor, economy and the most respectable means, the immense work which constitutes the strength of this country—*the participation of all in landed property.*”

“The rights of the poor ought to be considered the more sacred, because but for reliance upon such rights, none would have peopled these dangerous marches, the land would have been a desert; there would have been neither inhabitants nor cultivation. And here, at this day, in a time of peace and security, you come and dispute the right of those to the land, without whom the land would not have existed.

Yes, man makes the land; a truth applicable to the poorest countries. Never must we forget this, if we would comprehend how much, how passionately he loves her. Let us remember this, for ages, generation after generation, has expended upon her the sweat of the living, the bones of the dead, their savings, their nourishment. This land, upon which man has so long expended man's better part, his sap and substance, his energy, his virtue, he feels to be a human land, and he loves her as if she was a living being.

He loves her. To acquire her he consents to everything, even to see her no more; he emigrates, goes to a distance, if it must be, supported by this thought and recollection. What think you is that Savoyard errand boy, who is sitting on yon door step, thinking of? Of the little field of rye, of the sight of scanty pasture, which, on his return, he will buy on his mountain. It will take ten years! No matter.—The Alsatian will sell his life, and go to die in Africa, in order to have land in seven years time. For a few feet of a vineyard, the Burgundian woman takes her bosom from her own child's mouth, and puts a stranger's infant to it, weaning her own before its time. ‘Thou mayst live, mayst die,’ says the father, ‘but if thou livest, my son, thou wilt have land.’”

Is not this a hard, almost an impious thing to say? . . . Think well before you pronounce it. “Thou wilt have land; that means ‘Thou wilt not be a hireling—taken to-day, discharged to-morrow;

thou wilt not have to slave for thy daily bread, but thou wilt be free! . . . Free! great word, in which is comprised all human dignity: no virtue without liberty.”

But during the same period what has been the process in Great Britain?

In England, in the year 1775, the soil was divided among 240,000 proprietors. In 1815 it was all owned by 30,000—the number of proprietors diminishing seven-eighths in forty years. It is probable that the number is still less at the present time.

In the Highlands of Scotland the same process is going on. A few years ago, 1811, the Duchess of Sutherland brought a suit in the courts in order to have the question decided, whether the chieftains of clans were the proprietors of the country over which they, or their fathers, had held feudal sway. The English judges decided that the Duchess of Sutherland owned the land, and that all the clansmen who had acknowledged her ancestors as their feudal lord, or military leader, were only tenants at will, and by sufferance upon her estates. Immediately writs of ejectment were sued out, and in nine years, from 1811 to 1820, *three thousand* families of Highlanders were expelled from land which they and their ancestors had occupied for hundreds of years, or since Scotland was Scotland. We have seen it recently stated that the present duke contributed 80,000 pounds sterling, or about \$350,000, towards supplying the starving population of the Highlands with food during the famine of last year. His ability to subscribe such a sum of money was owing to the same cause that reduced the people to starvation—the expulsion of the people from his domains to give place to his lordship’s droves of sheep and herds of cattle. Hundreds of this same duke’s expatriated tenants have been sent to Canada within the past three years!

The Highlanders, who have emigrated to Canada for several years past, are the men who have been driven from their homes among the hills and in the glens of Scotland, by laws which neither chieftain nor clansmen ever knew.

Ireland is in a still worse condition. Its land has been repeatedly parceled out among its English invaders. And who are the owners of the soil?—and how do they manage their estates? We will not quote from Irish papers, nor from the reports of the Times Commissioner, for fear that our readers will suspect exaggeration; nor will we quote from any authority so late as 1846 or 1847, when famine might point every writer’s pen with prejudice; but we will quote from an American correspondent of the New York Presbyterian, who visited Ireland in the fall of 1845.

We will give two extracts; the first referring to Irish landholders in general, and the second to one in particular.

Oct. 15, 1845, he writes:—

“They were either proprietors of English estates, as well as Irish, and, of course, lived in England, and reckoned the Irish of secondary importance, leaving the management of them to others, merely expecting their rents at term-day; and their managers, or middle-men, as they were called, were intent only on extracting as much as possible, to support their own extravagance and that of their families; or they were Irish proprietors, who, in their own sphere, as poor almost as their tenantry in theirs, yet vied with the wealthy English in expenditure; and though their estates were mortgaged and burdened so as to leave them without the means, even had they possessed the inclination, to improve the condition of their tenantry, yet must they place their sons at English schools and colleges, and keep mansions in the metropolis for their wives and daughters, at the expense of all that they owed alike to themselves and the hapless serfs from whose poverty they extorted what they so recklessly squandered. This is unquestionably the true and principal secret of non-resident landlords and absenteeism; though the insecurity of life and the disregard of the rights of property are, no doubt, also powerfully operating causes; but causes that arise, in a great measure, as secondary from the former.”*

Nov. 2, 1845, he writes:—

“**LANDLORDISM IN IRELAND.**—The Marquis of Hertford is one of those extensive proprietors of estates who, contented to draw the enormous rents of which, under the skillful management of an ingenious agent, versed in the science of *squeezing*, they can be made productive, prefers the *hells* of London, the *salons* of Paris, or the *cavalier servente* life of Italy, to the dull monotony of *thorough draining*, and *rotation of crops*, and *longs and shorts* (in reference to sheep and their fleeces), and find the society of opera dancers, and French counts, and Italian marquises, preferable to the companionship of the gentry, and literary men, and clergy, and honest and intelligent farmers of their own country. Having determined on visiting them for the first time on his succeeding to the inheritance—for his father had long set the example of absenteeism, and both during life and after death (in consequence of bequeathing enormous sums to Italian valets, the ministers of his unholy pleasures,) had attracted notoriety as an aged *roue*—it was determined to give him such a welcome as would either encourage him to spend a part of his time upon his estates, or leave him inexcusable if he did not; and an address was prepared by a number, with Dean Stanners at

* It is stated in the London Industrial Journal, that the population of Ireland is 8,175,124, of whom four millions are males; and that, as there are thirteen and a half millions of acres of arable land, there are just seventeen laboring men to one hundred acres. But as the whole are not engaged in agriculture, there are eleven men to one hundred acres, who, with their women, children, &c., amounting to twenty-nine, must be supported from the land before the profits can be reckoned.

their head (for clergymen acting as land-agents is one of the many anomalies of the Irish church); but it spoke of the happiness and comfort of the tenantry, and their gratitude to their landlord, in a style dissatisfactory to the great mass of those whose sentiments it professed to utter. There was, therefore, another meeting, and much stormy discussion; and it was found that the idea of entertaining him at a dinner, as had been proposed, would lead to an unpleasant exhibition; and so he, very wisely, determined to become the host, not the guest, of his tenantry.

“Of the Marquis of Hertford’s Irish property, Lisburn is the chief town: the estate embraces about 100 square miles, and includes about 200 town lands; about 4000 sat down to dinner in the Lisburn Castle gardens, among whom were the most respectable gentlemen, merchants, and farmers of the adjacent towns and neighborhoods, at 30 tables, each 60 feet long; on which were 750 dishes of various kinds—70 roast beef, 55 mutton, 97 boiled beef, 96 tongues, 192 meat pies, 70 turkeys, 72 geese. There were served 3000 lbs. of bread, 3200 pints of strong ale, 30 barrels of beer (each containing 32 gallons), 1 hhd. and 6 half hhd. of porter, 3200 bottles of punch, and a cask of cider. Among the speakers were Capt. Meynell, M. P. for Lisburn, Mr. Watson, so much talked of from being dismissed by the government from his commission as magistrate and deputy lieutenant, and some others.

“The noble marquis said:—‘This is one of the happiest days of my life. Believe me, my friends, that I shall always have your happiness and welfare at heart; and that I shall always use my best endeavors to promote the one and contribute to the other.’ He was, no doubt, at the moment in earnest; and if the impression be only lasting, and the resolution carried out, the tenantry will be all the better, and an example afforded which it is to be wished others may imitate.

“Subsequently, the noble marquis provided a substantial dinner for the inmates of the Lisburn Union Workhouse; and a very happy and joyous evening was spent by the paupers.”

2. TENURE OF LAND IN AMERICA.

And now let us turn to the American continent, and inquire into the tenure of land in Canada and the United States.

The French introduced the feudal system into Canada. Lower Canada, or Canada East, as it is now called, is divided into forty counties, and subdivided into seigniories, fiefs, and townships. Of seigniories and fiefs, besides smaller grants, there are said to be two hundred and eight, and of townships one hundred and sixty. The lands are held either by feudal tenure, or in socage; the lands of the former tenure, with some few exceptions, were all granted before the British conquest of Canada in 1759. Many of the seig-

niorial grants are of great extent, and they occupy almost all the lands on the banks of the St. Lawrence, and those on the Richelieu, Yamaska, and Chaudiere. The grants in socage have been made since the conquest, and they form the townships. Many of these grants lie behind the seigniorial grants, but some of them have rivers for their front.

The Island of Montreal, thirty-five miles long, and ten wide, is a single seignior, and the property of the Seminary of St. Sulpice at Montreal.

Of the 14,000 square miles of country between the river Chaudiere and the western limits of Lower Canada, 3,800 square miles, lying on the banks of the river, are included in the seigniorial grants. Between the river Yamaska and lake St. Francis, is a tract of land through which the Richelieu flows, and of the whole of it only three townships are held in socage. And the tract between the Yamaska and Chaudiere, on the St. Lawrence, is all occupied by seignories.

Indeed, all the most fertile portions of Lower Canada are still subject to the feudal tenure, and the land pays tithes to the jurists, and tribute to the seigniors.

The ignorance and poverty of the people on the seignories is a subject of grievous complaint on the part of the Provincial authorities.

In 1843, three commissioners, A. Buchanan, J. A. Taschereau, and James Smith, appointed by the government to examine and report upon the extent, nature, and influence of the feudal tenure, made a long and able report, from which we make the following extract :

“ It cannot be denied that sound policy, for the ultimate well-being of the inhabitants of this community, requires that the feudal tenure should be abolished.

“ It is no longer suited to the spirit of the age, nor the actual wants of the population ; it is the relic of a barbarous age, and, in its practical operations, antagonistic to the growth and permanency of free institutions.

“ However advantageous it may have been in the infancy of a colony, and favorable under wholesome restrictions, to the rapid settlement of a wilderness, its necessity is no longer felt, and in a more advanced community, it operates as a bar to general improvement, and the prosperity of the people.

“ The *censitaires* (tenants) being the more numerous class, in whose well being that of the community is more immediately concerned, their interests ought, in this particular (referring to a proposed law, providing for a commutation) to preponderate over those of the seignior.”

In the *United States* we still have the remains of feudal grants made by the English and Dutch governments under the pretence,

or the supposition, that the rich proprietors would be active and efficient in promoting the settlement of the country. But the Dutch government became early convinced that the manor lords were an obstacle in the way of the growth and settlement of the country, and not only refused to make further grants, but endeavored to take away, limit, and destroy those already granted.

But the English colonial governors and councils were never stinted, or over-scrupulous in the extent, or conditions of their grants. In Maine, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, extensive manors were created, which if it had not been for the revolutionary war, would have built up in this country a colossal and overshadowing aristocracy.

But the royal grants in Maine came in conflict with the claims of Massachusetts, and the republicans of that colony had little respect for the manors created by the English, or the seigniories granted by the French.

Alluding to this subject, a late author says :

“But Massachusetts had objects beyond cutting down trees and casting fishing lines. Her ‘presumption’ in crossing the path of royalty has often been condemned. But the citizens of Maine cannot too often commend the indomitable spirit which she evinced in her struggle to root out Gorges and the Cavaliers, or Monarchists of his planting, and to put in his place the humbler, but purer Roundheads, or Puritans of her own kindred. Had she faltered, when dukes and lords signed parchments that conveyed away soil that she claimed; had she not sought to push her sovereignty over men and territories not originally her own; had she not broken down French seigniories and English feoffments, Maine, east of Gorges’ eastern boundary, might have continued a part of the British empire to this hour.”—*Sabine’s Lives of the Loyalists*, p. 4.

The same author holds the following language in relation to the part which the great landholders were disposed to take in the Revolutionary struggle.

“In passing from New England, we are to speak of American colonists of different origin, and who lived under different forms of the colonial system, or form of government. Thus, New York had no charter, but was governed by royal instructions, orders in council, and similar authority communicated to the governors by the ministers ‘at home.’ The governor and council were appointed by the king, but vacancies at the council board were filled by the governor.—The people elected the popular branch, which consisted of twenty-seven members. To say that the political institutions of New York formed a feudal aristocracy, is to define them with tolerable accuracy. The soil was owned by a few. The masses were mere retainers or tenants, as in the monarchies of Europe.

“While a large proportion of the people of New York pre-

ferred to continue their connection with the mother country, very many of them entered the military service of the crown, and fought in defence of their principles. Whole battalions, and even regiments were raised by the great landholders, and continued organized and in pay throughout the struggle. In fine, New York was, undeniably, the loyalists' stronghold, and contained more of them than any other colony in all America. I will not say that she devoted her resources of men and money to the cause of the enemy; but I *do* say that she withheld many of the one, and much of the other, from the cause of the right. Massachusetts furnished 67,907 Whig soldiers between the years 1775 and 1783; while New York supplied but 17,781. In adjusting the war balances, after the peace, Massachusetts, as was then ascertained, has overpaid her share in the sum of \$1,248,801 of silver money; but New York was deficient in the large amount of \$2,074,846. New Hampshire, though almost a wilderness, furnished 12,496 troops for the continental ranks, or quite three-quarters of the number enlisted in the Empire State."—*Sabine's Lives of the Loyalists*, p. 18.

"Virginia, like New York, was a feudal aristocracy. But there, a large portion of the landholders, unlike those of New York, were Whigs, and, of course, favored the revolutionary movement."—*Ib.*, p. 24.

At the present day, the land throughout the United States is divided into comparatively small allotments, and owned by a multitude of small proprietors, whose title is generally an unconditional fee. But there are exceptions to this general truth, both as to extent and tenure of land. We make the following extract from a foreign author, who has traveled extensively in Europe, Asia, and America:—

"The population of Maryland is four hundred and fifty thousand; of these one hundred and fifty thousand are blacks—ninety thousand being slaves, the remainder free. Since the year 1790 the white population of the principal slaveholding counties has diminished two-sevenths. In the greater number of them the slaves, at the present time, are more numerous than the whites. There is a great extent of surface, once tilled, now gone to waste. The land is held in farms of large size: when it ceased to be abundantly productive, the clumsy and wasteful process of slave labor could be no longer applied to it. Tobacco is the only production of this State which ever seems to require slave labor; but in Ohio it can be raised by free labor to undersell the Maryland growers.

"The abolition of slavery tends to divide properties into small farms; this process would, in a few years, double the value of the crops, and consequently of the land."*

* Hochelega, chap. iii. vol. ii. p. 40

What is said of Maryland is true also of all the slaveholding states. The land is owned by a few, and cultivated by slaves. The same extent of surface does not produce the same amount in quantity or value.

But how is it in New York and New England? The soil is subdivided into small estates, and its cultivators stand upon their own acres, which they till with their own hands. In all the northern states, except New York and Pennsylvania, the number of large landholders is very small. And even upon the great manorial estates the land is generally leased in small farms, and in perpetuity. The cultivator has the fee of the land, and he can hold it as long as he pays, punctually, the annual rents. It is true that the rents are in the nature of a tax levied upon the land, and have become a heavy drain upon the resources of the inhabitants; but the perpetual lease is much more favorable to the cultivators than the leases from year to year. But a township which pays an annual tribute of \$6000 a year to a landlord in New York city, is not so rich by \$100,000 as a township whose farmers pay no rent. But even the few great estates are yearly breaking into fragments, and becoming small by degrees. In New England and New York there are more farms less than fifty acres in extent than over one hundred, and the farmers who own less than one hundred acres are as ten to one of those who own more than a hundred. The state of Ohio, which, a century ago, was a wilderness, without a civilized inhabitant, is now the home of 2,000,000 of people, and very few of the landholders own more than fifty acres each.

[To be Continued.]

(EXTRACTS.)*

CONSTITUTION—RIGHT OF CONSTRUCTION—VETO POWER, &c.

BY HON. J. C. SPENCER.

(From his Review of Judge Upshur's Strictures.)

* * * * * The argument, so often repeated in Mr. Upshur's remarks, that because the constitution was a compact between the states, one with the other, each must possess the right to construe it for itself, is deemed a very dangerous fallacy. According to our ideas, every government is the result of a compact, express or implied, by those who submit to it. In the states, then, the citizens who are the parties to this compact must respectively have the same right to construe it for themselves, and in a *clear* case of judicial usurpation must have the right to nullify the decision. Before admitting such consequences it will be well to test the soundness of the premises from which they flow. Now, as is remarked in General Jackson's proclamation in 1832; it is precisely because it is a compact that the parties cannot depart from it. It is an agreement, a binding obligation, entered into for mutual benefit, and upon a mutual consideration between the respective parties, that they will respectively fulfill the obligations, and perform the duties which it enjoins. Each party has an interest in the performance of it by the other, and, therefore, no party can withdraw from that performance without the consent of the others. To secure this performance, all the parties have agreed upon the creation of a distinct and independent tribunal to determine their controversies, not only with each other, but with the common or federal government, and have further agreed that such determination shall be final. That tribunal is not the agent or functionary of the federal government alone. Its members must be appointed with the advice and consent of a majority of the states, expressed by their representa-

* It is our intention to give, from time to time, as our limits will permit, the opinions temperately expressed on both sides, of our eminent men, on great questions of national interest. To carry out this design, we had prepared with the President's reasons for the veto on the harbor bill, extracts from the able report of the Chicago Convention, attributed to Mr. Spencer, and from Mr. Webster's speech. We had also made full extracts from the speeches and letters of prominent statesmen on the great slavery question, so as to present the whole subject. All of these we postpone to another number, on account of the mass of historical matter and documents which the plan of our work obliges us to insert.

tives in the senate. They are the umpires chosen by the federal government and the states conjointly. The very first step which that tribunal must always take when a case is presented to it, is to inquire whether it be one of those that have been agreed on to be submitted to its determination. Now the pretence that one of the parties may, under this agreement, revise the decision of this tribunal, and decide for itself whether a given case was subject to its jurisdiction, is to nullify not only the decision but the agreement itself. But this it has no moral or political right to do. It would be a shameful violation of not only its faith, but an outrage upon all the other parties to the compact, which they would have the unquestionable right to resent and to punish. This, then, would immediately bring on a war. It is to avoid this very consequence that the tribunal created to decide these controversies is armed with power to enforce its decisions, and, fortunately, it operates not on states, but on individuals, on the citizens composing the people of the United States. If a state should, through its courts, imprison or otherwise punish an officer of the United States, for executing one of its laws, the persons committing the offence would be held responsible, and to enforce that responsibility, the whole power, civil and military, of all the other states, would be put in requisition. Such are the guarantees of our constitution, and that they are effectual and will be called into action whenever occasion shall require, has already been proved in a case peculiarly calculated to test their value and strength. * * * * *

I have no disposition to follow Mr. Upshur in his remarks upon that clause of the constitution which allows representation to three-fifths of the slaves. It is enough to say that it was one of the results of a compromise without which no constitution could have been formed. Whatever doubt of its justice or expediency may be entertained, every good citizen will observe it and obey it in its integrity.

He also remarks upon the omission in the constitution to provide for removals from office. He might have noticed a hundred other omissions of details which necessarily flow from express provisions, or which are supplied by the usages of the country from which we borrow our language and so many of our legal and political institutions.

He regards as a "striking imperfection" in our constitution the existence of the *veto power*, and adds, the right to forbid the "people to pass whatever laws they please, is the right to deprive them of self-government." The veto power, or the veto, does not forbid the people to pass what laws they please. How much more accurate and discriminating is the accomplished author of "Democracy in America!" The veto is, as he represents it, an appeal to the people by a president, in defence of the independence which the constitution awards him. It is an appeal to the sober second

thought of the representatives of the people, to re-consider the matter, and if two-thirds of both houses still believe the proposed bill to be just and constitutional, they may pass it notwithstanding the president's objections. It is a *suspensive* veto, not an *absolute* one, as in England; and without it the president would long since have been stripped of every valuable function of his office, or rendered utterly dependent on the Congress. In fifty-five years that have elapsed since the power was granted, it has not been exercised more than ten or twelve times; and, in every instance but one its exercise has been sanctioned by the people.

The *re-eligibility of the president*, from term to term, is also complained of by Mr. Upshur, and he thinks proper to add, "Presidents are now made, not by the free suffrages of the people, but by party management." But he has not intimated that the ineligibility of a president would have the least effect in preventing party management. A president has the same means of choosing his successor—nay, greater means than of promoting his own re-election; and we have not found less party management during the second term to which our presidents are limited by the unwritten law of public opinion, than during their first term, when they were candidates for re-election. It is obvious that exigencies may arise, such as a foreign war, which would require indispensably the continuance in power of an existing administration, that it might carry out a plan of measures it had devised. The opinion that ordinarily the same person should not serve more than once in the presidential office is becoming prevalent: and a sound public sentiment will doubtless regulate the matter as well, if not better, than it could be done by a positive provision of the constitution. * * * * *

If these remarks shall have the effect of dispelling such a reflection upon the wisdom of that distinguished body of men, who calmly and deliberately weighed every suggestion that sprang from their own minds, or was suggested to them by others; who investigated most carefully the very peculiar condition of the states, and understood their various local interests; who had felt the defects of the confederation in seven years of war and six of peace; and invoking the blessing and aid of Divine Providence, devoted themselves to the task with a fidelity, patience, and forbearance which have been the admiration of the world, and finally produced the first written constitution of government that ever emanated direct from the people themselves—a constitution venerated by the intelligence of all Europe, and enshrined in the hearts of all patriotic Americans; if that constitution shall have been in any degree cleared of the mists with which a partial, theoretic, and heated imagination had invested it, I shall be thankful, and shall feel that neither my time nor the patience of the reader has been misspent.

FREE AND EQUAL.

(HON. J. C. CALHOUN ON THE TERRITORIAL BILL.)

Speaking of the future historian who might have to record the events tending to so calamitous a result as the dissolution of the Union, Mr. C. said:

If he should possess a philosophical turn of mind, and be disposed to look to more remote and recondite causes, he will trace it to a proposition which originated in a hypothetical truism, but which as now expressed and now understood, is the most false and dangerous of all political errors. The proposition to which I allude, has become an axiom in the minds of a vast majority on both sides of the Atlantic, and is repeated daily from tongue to tongue, as an established and incontrovertible truth; it is, that "all men are born free and equal." I am not afraid to attack error, however deeply it may be entrenched, or however widely extended, whenever it becomes my duty to do so, as I believe it to be on this subject and occasion.

Taking the proposition literally, (it is in that sense it is understood,) there is not a word of truth in it.—It begins with "all men are born," which is utterly untrue. Men are not born. Infants are born. They grow to be men. And concludes with asserting that they are born "free and equal," which is not less false. They are not born free. While infants they are incapable of freedom, being destitute alike of the capacity of thinking and acting, without which there can be no freedom. Besides, they are necessarily born subject to their parents, and remain so among all people, savage and civilized, until the development of their intellect and physical capacity enable them to take care of themselves. They grow to all the freedom, of which the condition of which they were born permits, by growing to be men. Nor is it less false that they are born "equal." They are not so in any sense in which it can be regarded; and thus, as I have asserted, there is not a word of truth in the whole proposition, as expressed and understood.

Man, for the purpose of reasoning, may be regarded in three different states: in a state of individuality; that is, living by himself apart from the rest of his species. In the social; that is, living in society, associated with others of his species. And in the political; that is, being under government. We may reason as to what would be his rights and duties in either, without taking into consideration whether he could exist in it or not. It is certain, that in the first, the very supposition that he lived apart and separated from all others, would make him free and equal. No one, in such a state,

could have the right to command or control another. Every man would be his own master, and might do just as he pleased. But it is equally clear that man cannot exist in such a state; that he is by nature social, and that society is necessary, not only to the proper development of all his faculties, moral and intellectual, but to the very existence of his race. Such being the case, the state is a purely hypothetical one; and when we say all men are free and equal in it, we announce a mere hypothetical truism; that is a truism resting on a mere supposition that cannot exist, and of course one of little or no practical value.

* * * * *

Instead, then, of all men having the same right to liberty and equality, as is claimed by those who hold that they are all born free and equal, liberty is the noble and highest reward bestowed on mental and moral development, combined with favorable circumstances. Instead, then, of liberty and equality being born with man, instead of all men and all classes and descriptions being equally entitled to them, they are high prizes to be won, and are in their most perfect state, not only the highest reward that can be bestowed on our race, but the most difficult to be won, and when won the most difficult to be preserved.

They have been made vastly more so, by the dangerous error I have attempted to expose, that all men are born free and equal, as if those high qualities belonged to man without effort to acquire them and to all equally alike, regardless of their intellectual and moral condition. The attempt to carry into practice this, the most dangerous of all political errors, and to bestow on all, without regard to their fitness, either to acquire or maintain liberty,—that unbounded and individual liberty supposed to belong to man in the hypothetical and misnamed state of nature, has done more to retard the cause of liberty and civilization, and is doing more at present, than all other causes combined. While it is powerful to pull down governments, it is still more powerful to prevent their construction on proper principles. It is the leading cause among those who have placed Europe in its present anarchical condition, and which mainly stands in the way of reconstructing good governments in the place of those which have been overthrown, threatening thereby the quarter of the globe most advanced in progress and civilization, with hopeless anarchy, to be followed by military despotism. Nor are we exempt from its disorganizing effects. We now begin to experience the danger of admitting so great an error to have a place in the declaration of our independence. For a long time it remained dormant; but in the process of time, it began to germinate, and produce its poisonous fruits. It had strong hold on the mind of Mr. Jefferson, the author of that document, which caused

him to take an utterly false view of the subordinate relation of the black to the white race in the South; and to hold in consequence, that the former, though utterly unqualified to possess liberty, were as fully entitled to both liberty and equality as the latter; and that to deprive them of it, was unjust and immoral. To this error, his proposition to exclude slavery from the territory northwest of the Ohio may be traced, and to that the ordinance of '87, and through it the deep and dangerous agitation which now threatens to engulf, and will certainly engulf, if not speedily settled, our political institutions, and involve the country in countless woes.

NATURAL EQUALITY.

HON. ELY MOORE.

(From his Address on Civil Government.)

As well might you attempt to fetter the pinion of time, or chain the passing hour, as roll back the current of human progress, or impede the onward movement of the principles of popular revolution: they will—they must—accomplish their destinies. “There is a Divinity that shapes their end;” and its providential power—whilst it forbids them to recede—*compels* them to advance. And although there is, in the nature of human events, a sovereign and irrevocable necessity—paramount to all earthly power, and which baffles and defies all the efforts of man to check or limit its control—yet it is in accordance with the laws of man’s being and the providence of God, that man should *concur* in all that relates to his preservation and welfare. Industry, watchfulness and care is the very tenure of man’s existence. He must obtain his bread by the sweat of his face. God has so decreed. Notwithstanding, therefore, the uniform and permanent tendency of this revolutionary movement of the day, in behalf of the free or popular principle, yet the *co-operation of man* is necessary—not to the eventual triumph of this principle, but that *he may enjoy its benefits and its blessings*.

To our country has been reserved the proud privilege of unfolding and *establishing* the principles of popular freedom. If you would rightly estimate the dignity and importance of this national position, regard, for a moment, the wide-spread and avalanche movement of *the principle*, which recognizes the natural equality of man, and the absolute sovereignty of the people. Already does it claim the attention, and challenge the judgment of the wise and the good of all lands and of all nations. The enlightened and philosophical statesman—of whatever creed or country—begins to regard the eventual triumph of

this principle as inevitable—begins to believe, and to confess, as he calmly views the character and progress of events, that the happiness and welfare of the race demand the speedy installation of its power in every clime and country of the earth. Even Philosophy, herself, as she contemplates the accumulating intelligence and power of the masses, hesitates and recoils, as she denounces this ultimate result as *Utopian*. Indeed, her most worthy and gifted disciples begin to regard it as an established truth—an indefeasible fact: confess that it is no startling phenomenon in the political world, but ancient as society itself, and its tendency the most stable and uniform of any which illustrates the chronicles of the human race. And herein they are correct. The spirit of popular liberty is not—as some superficial minds have contended—the exclusive growth of this country, and originally brought forth in the *travails* of the American Revolution. The principles which recognize the natural and political equality of man, were understood and partially carried out by our Saxon ancestors. DE LOLME, in treating of the early recognition of general social rights, in his great work on the Constitution of England, holds the following language:—"The different orders of the feudal government, as established in England, being connected by tenures exactly similar, the same maxims which were laid down as true against the lord paramount, in behalf of the lord of an upper fief, were likewise to be admitted against the latter, in behalf of the owner of an inferior fief. The same maxims were also to be applied to the possessor of a still lower fief; they farther descended to the freeman and to the peasant; and the spirit of liberty, after having circulated through the different branches of the feudal subordination, thus continued to flow through successive homogeneous channels; it forced a passage into the remotest ramification, and the principle of *primeval equality became everywhere diffused and established*: a sacred principle, which neither injustice nor ambition can erase; which exists in every breast, and to exert itself, requires only to be awakened among the numerous and oppressed classes of mankind."

Coeval with the first of our Colonies was the Petition of Right—that Magna Charta of a more liberal age—presented by Lord Coke and his enlightened compeers; and the founders of the American Colonies brought with them its *spirit*, if not its letter—brought with them the maxims and the *sentiments* of civil liberty; not engrossed on parchment, but written upon the tablets of their memories—inscribed upon the portals of their hearts—garnered up in the chambers of their souls; and the very first man that leaped from the deck of the May-Flower upon the Rock of Plymouth, was a *living incarnation of the spirit of liberty*—armed at all points—in head, and heart, and limb—to assert and vindicate **ALL HIS RIGHTS AS MAN!**

Our political emancipation was not achieved, nor our free system of government established, by virtue of the *discovery* or *origination*, by us, of any of the principles or maxims of civil liberty; but by the intellectual labors of our fathers, in collecting, translating, developing, and arranging previously acquired notions of political rights and powers into a new form of polity. Our Declaration of Independence but *reinstated* the people in their ancient and original rights. The truths which it proclaimed required no labored argument, or formal demonstration, to cause them to be understood and appreciated; they were "*self-evident*," and only required to be announced, to challenge the universal assent of mankind. Nowhere else, however, have these principles—these "self-evident truths," now tending to their just supremacy—ever received either full development, or practical development. No, it was reserved to the statesmen of America to give them form and substance, as well as force and efficiency: and when they asserted—through Mr. Jefferson—that "all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed," they embraced all that was requisite to constitute a clear and perfect compendium of human rights, as well as a faithful epitome of all the appropriate functions and duties of human government. It is natural and proper, therefore, that the oppressed and down-trodden of all nations, who would follow in our steps, should look with eagerness, and with assurance, to us. Connected, as we are, by example, as well as by sympathy, with the successful advancement of these great principles, our country must, necessarily, be regarded as their peculiar champion and guardian; and responsible, as such, for their preservation and farther development. We owe it, then, to ourselves, to our children, and to the whole family of man, to be true and faithful to the sacred trust which has been confided to our care. Superior, as we are, to all other nations, in well defined and regulated liberty, so too, let us be superior to all others in holy efforts to extend and perpetuate the principles we have rendered immortal.

The socially and politically oppressed of all nations have a right to look to us for encouragement, for guidance, and relief—have a right to look to us for the performance of the promises we have tacitly made; the realization of the hopes we have virtually inspired, and the fulfillment of the lofty destiny to which we are pledged.

(MISCELLANY.)

ABD-EL-KADER.

Abd-el-Kader has been called the *modern Jugurtha*. He deserves the name. The historian *Sallust* relates the exploits of the ancient Numidian king, and shows with what daring, with what cunning, and what perseverance he kept at bay the Roman armies. The modern Jugurtha was not inferior in intellectual and military qualities. For fifteen years he has displayed a wonderful strength of will, prodigious activity, indomitable constancy, military talents which astonished the most skillful officers. He possessed in a high degree the art of dazzling the imagination of the Arabs, awakening their religious faith, reviving their courage in disasters, and of finding resources in the most desperate circumstances. He never rested even in the short intervals of peace concluded with France. Constantly on horseback, traversing plains and deserts with unheard-of rapidity, he chastised the refractory tribes, and encouraged those who remained true to his cause. He even succeeded in organizing, for some time, ten thousand regular troops: a thing quite remarkable, if we reflect on the antipathy of the Arabs to all civilized habits. In a word, Abd-el-Kader showed a superior genius. The last support of a nation destined to perish, he did all that was possible to preserve it from ruin, and if the French government had not sent against him armies of a hundred thousand soldiers, he would have been now master of all Algiers, from the coasts of the Mediterranean to the frontiers of the empire of Morocco.

Do not imagine, however, that Abd-el-Kader has a cruel, ferocious aspect. On the contrary, by a strange contrast between his looks and his acts, he has a delicate and almost effeminate air. The features of his face are mild, his hands white and small like those of a girl; he has a small beard; his step is slow and calm; his frail body seems incapable of supporting the least fatigue. When a stranger speaks to him, he listens with downcast eyes, fingering his necklace, and moving his lips as if mumbling the words of a prayer. In the days of his greatest power, he observed the utmost frugality at home, in his wardrobe and mode of living: only he was fond of mounting a splendid black horse, which he rode with the grace and skill of an accomplished knight; and the popular superstition fancied that this horse was the gift of Mahomet, and would carry Abd-el-Kader through the air, if he should be surrounded by enemies.

In 1830, when the French invaded Algiers, Abd-el-Kader was still in a subordinate and obscure rank. Being suspected by the dey of Algiers, because he set up some ambitious pretensions, he

had been shut up in prison with his father. But on the arrival of our soldiers, he began to acquire consequence among the Arabs. He traversed the villages, preaching a *crusade* against the Christian infidels, and everywhere exciting insurrections. He placed himself in ambushes, and when he saw small detachments of French soldiers, he fell upon them suddenly and cut them in pieces. He was commonly successful in these expeditions. Cool and adroit, he surprised his enemies, without being himself taken off his guard, and his companions in arms regarded him as a messenger from God.

At this time, the French government was not settled what course to take in Algiers. Many statesmen thought that the best way was merely to guard the coasts, and leave the interior country to the natives. This system was called the *restricted occupation*; it seemed more suitable to the interests of France, which had no desire to sacrifice blood and treasure to invade the deserts of Africa.

Hence in 1834, her generals concluded with Abd-el-Kader a treaty by which they conceded to him the sovereignty of a part of the Algerine territory. This arrangement was a great fault; for it authorized and sanctioned all the pretensions of this young Arab chief. From that time, Abd-el-Kader took the name of *prince of the faithful*; he was, in the eyes of Mussulmans, a sacred person, and seemed to have the prerogatives of a sultan or king. He treated on an equality with the representatives of the French nation.

He took advantage of the peace which had been so imprudently granted, to extend his power among the native tribes. Several rivals had risen up. He attacked and crushed them one after another, by the power of Mahometan superstition or by force of arms, and in a short time, he became supreme master of the whole Arab population, consisting of two or three millions of souls. France had thus before her a powerful, active, implacable enemy, who was obeyed as a messenger from on high by a host of ferocious warriors. It was impossible that peace should last. In 1835, hostilities were renewed, and Abd-el-Kader met with great reverses. At times he was left almost alone before the victorious French when his soldiers had been completely beaten; a great many fell on the field of battle; others took flight; the town where he fixed his residence was burnt by the French; and the Arabs, who yielded to a reverse of fortune as to a decree of God, began to go over to the side of the conquerors.

In this alarming extremity Abd-el-Kader did not despair. Betrayed by the Arabs, and reduced to live by begging, like a vagabond, he betook himself to the inhabitants of Morocco and to the *Kabyles*, a savage people living on the sides and valleys of Mount Atlas. His voice was heard; thousands of men arose to try with him again the fortune of arms. Abd-el-Kader began by taking

bloody vengeance upon the Arabs who had abandoned his cause, and the terror which he inspired brought him numerous allies. His campaign against the French was marked by signal successes; and, in May 1837, a second peace was signed between him and General *Bugeaud*, called *the peace of Tafna*.

This was another fault committed by the French government. The *prince of the faithful* gained every day more authority among the Mahometans; he affected an insolent superiority, and declared openly that he would soon be the sovereign over all Algiers. In his communications with the governor of Algiers, he showed much contempt, and more than once came at the head of his soldiers to the very borders of Algiers, ravaging and burning everything in his way.

The legislative chambers of France, tired of the enormous expenses which they had made for this remote conquest, constantly urged the cabinet to forbearance and not to resume war against this barbarian chieftain. But such a course was plainly inadmissible. The more the French showed forbearance, the more did the Arabs think that it was the effect of fear. It became manifest that the government was placed in this alternative, either to renounce altogether the possession of Algiers, or to put down Abd-el-Kader effectually.

So, Marshal Bugeaud received orders to break the convention of Tafna. The war was long and bloody. With Abd-el-Kader, it was a question of life or death. He knew this well, and redoubled his activity and audacity. The French, on their part, saw that there was no longer any armistice nor truce to be concluded with the enemy. They resolved to make great sacrifices to obtain a definite triumph. The best generals, the most renowned regiments were sent into Africa; the Duke d'Orleans, the Duke d'Aumale, the Duke de Montpensier,—three sons of Louis Philip,—went successively to fight Abd-el-Kader, in order to animate by their presence the devotedness of the troops. *To conquer or die* was the motto of both armies.

The Arab chieftain gained the first advantage. He had everywhere spies and friends. The Mussulman population were roused at his call, like one man; old men and children even took their guns and swords; the names of Mahomet and of Abd-el-Kader inspired every breast. But European tactics gave the French great advantage over him. The towns of *Constantine*, *Oran*, *Mascara*, *Tlemsen*, were successively occupied by their battalions. Several tribes came again under French dominion, because they had no means of defence. It even happened, one day, that the *Smala* of Abd-el-Kader was captured; it consisted of all the women of the emir's lieutenants, and of all the riches which he had collected in his excursions; seven thousand prisoners and an enormous booty fell into the hands of the conqueror.

Forced to leave the territory of Algiers, Abd-el-Kader fled to the

states of Morocco. There, in the name of the Mahometan faith, he succeeded in seducing the emperor, *Abderrhaman*, and to lead him against the French. This was the origin of a new war. Marshal Bugeaud marched resolutely against the armies of Morocco, and gained the celebrated victory of *Isly*. At the same time, a French squadron bombarded the town of *Tangiers*. Attacked on both sides, and unable to make serious resistance, the Emperor Abderrhaman hastened to conclude a peace.

Events became more and more adverse to Abd-el-Kader. He made prodigious efforts to recover his cause. Having only a few faithful troops, he disputed the ground foot by foot. When he would seem to be beaten and unable to keep the field, he would return all at once upon another quarter of the colony and renew the combat. You could not, indeed, but admire this invincible tenacity of purpose, this constancy which was disheartened by no privations, nor by the treachery of his own friends. Almost all the Arabs had submitted, and Abd-el-Kader continued to struggle. He tried even to stir up the inhabitants of Morocco against their sovereign, calling him an infidel, an apostate, because he had consented to a peace with the mortal foes of Islamism. His plan was to dethrone Abderrhaman and to usurp his kingdom. But this rash undertaking was the cause of his own ruin. The emperor of Morocco turned upon Abd-el-Kader, who, thus placed between the French and the force of the emperor, and having but a handful of soldiers, was constrained to surrender in the night of 22d and 23d December. He chose to trust himself with the French rather than to the soldiers of Morocco: a fine testimony of esteem paid by a Mussulman to Christians.

But a grave difficulty now presented itself. In making his submission, Abd-el-Kader had stipulated that he should be conveyed to Egypt or Syria, and that he should live at liberty in a Mahometan country. General Lamoriciere assented to this condition; and the Duke d'Aumale, governor of the colony, confirmed it. This engagement has not been fulfilled on the part of the French.

The Arab chief is still a prisoner in France.—(*Observer.*)

COL. FREMONT'S CELEBRATED RIDE IN CALIFORNIA.

It was at daybreak on the 22d of March, 1847, that Lieut.-Col. Fremont, his friend Don Haisos Pico, and his servant, Jacob Dodson, sat out from La Ciudad le los Angelos (the city of the Angels) in the southern part of Upper California, to proceed in the shortest time to Monterey, on the Pacific ocean, distant full four hundred miles. The way is over a mountainous country, much of it uninhabited, with no other road than a trace, and many

defiles to pass, particularly the maritime defile of El Rincon, or Punto Gordo, fifteen miles in extent, made by the jutting of a precipitous mountain into the sea, and which can only be passed when the tide is out and the sea calm, and even then in many places through the waves. The towns of Santa Barbara and San Luis Obispo, and occasional ranchos, are the principal inhabited places on the route. Each of the party had three horses, nine in all, to take their turns under the saddle. The six loose horses ran ahead without bridle or halter, and required some attention to keep to the track. When wanted for a change, say at distances of twenty miles, they were caught by the lasso, thrown either by Don Pico or the servant Jacob. None of the horses were shod. The usual gait was a sweeping gallop. The first day they ran one hundred and twenty-five miles. The next day they made another hundred and twenty-five miles, passing the formidable mountain of Santa Barbara, and counting upon it the skeletons of some fifty horses, part of near double that number which perished in the crossing of that terrible mountain by the California battalion on Christmas day, 1846, amidst a raging tempest, and a deluge of rain and cold more killing than that of the Sierra Nevada—the day of severest suffering, say Fremont and his men, that they have ever passed.

At sunset the party stopped to sup with the friendly Captain Dana, and at nine at night, San Luis Obispo was reached, the home of Don Pico, and where an affecting reception awaited Lieut.-Colonel Fremont, in consequence of an incident which occurred there, that history will one day record; and he was detained till 11 o'clock in the morning receiving the visits of the inhabitants, (mothers and children included,) taking a breakfast of honor, and waiting for a relief of fresh horses to be brought in from the surrounding country. Here the nine horses from Los Angeles were left, and eight others taken in their place, and a Spanish boy added to the party to assist in managing the loose horses. Proceeding at the usual gait till 8 at night, and having made some seventy miles, Don Pico, who had spent the night before with his family and friends, and probably with but little sleep, became fatigued, and proposed a halt for a few hours. It was in the valley of the Salinas, (Salt River, called *Buena Ventura* in the old maps,) and the haunt of marauding Indians. For safety during their repose, the party turned off the trace, issued through a *canada* into a thick wood, and laid down, the horses being put to grass at a short distance, with the Spanish boy in the saddle to watch. Sleep, when commenced, was too sweet to be easily given up, and it was halfway between midnight and day, when the sleepers were aroused by an estampedo among the horses, and the calls of the boy.

The cause of the alarm was soon found—not Indians, but white bears—this valley being their great resort, and the place where Col.

F. and thirty-five of his men encountered some hundred of them the summer before, killing thirteen upon the ground. The character of these bears is well known, and the bravest hunters, do not like to meet them without the advantage of numbers. On discovering the enemy, Col. F. felt for his pistols, but Don Pico desired him to lie still, saying that "people could scare bears;" and immediately hallooed at them in Spanish, and they went off. Sleep went off also; and the recovery of the horses frightened by the bears, building a rousing fire, making a breakfast from the hospitable supplies of San Luis Obispo, occupied the party till daybreak; when the journey was resumed. Eighty miles and the afternoon brought the party to Monterey. The next day, in the afternoon, the party sat out on their return, and the two horses rode by Col. F. from San Luis Obispo, being a present to him from Don Pico, the latter desired to make an experiment of what one of them could do. They were brothers, one a grass younger than the other, both of the same color, (cinnamon), and hence called *el canal* or *los canales*, (the cinnamon, or the cinnamons.) The elder was then taken for the trial; the journey commenced upon him at leaving Monterey, the afternoon well advanced.

Thirty miles under the saddle done that evening, and the party stopped for the night. In the morning the elder *canal* was again under the saddle for Col. F., and for ninety miles he carried him without a change and without apparent fatigue. It was still thirty miles to San Luis Obispo, where the night was to be passed, and Don Pico insisted that *canal* could easily do it, and so said the horse by his looks and actions. But Colonel F. would not put him to the trial, and, shifting the saddle to the younger brother, the elder was turned loose to run the remaining thirty miles without a rider. He did so, immediately taking the lead and keeping it all the way, and entering San Luis in a sweeping gallop, nostrils distended, snuffing the air, and neighing with exultation at his return to his native pastures, his younger brother all the while running at the head of the horses under the saddle, bearing on his bit, and held in by his rider.

The whole eight horses made their one hundred and twenty miles each that day, (after the evening before,) the elder cinnamon making ninety miles of his under the saddle, that day, besides thirty under the saddle the evening before; nor was there the least doubt that he would have done the whole distance in the same time, if he had continued under the saddle. After a hospitable detention of another half day at San Luis Obispo, the party sat out for Los Angeles on the same nine horses which they had rode from that place, and made the ride back in about the same time they had made it up; namely, at the rate of 125 miles a day. On this ride the grass on the road was the food for the horses. At Monterey they had

barley: but these horses, meaning those trained and domesticated, as the canals were, eat almost anything in the way of vegetable food, or even drink, that their master uses, by whom they are petted and caressed and rarely sold. Bread, fruits, sugar, coffee, and even wine (like the Persian horse) they take from the hand of their master, and obey with like docility, his slightest intimation. A tap of the whip on the saddle springs them into action; the check of a thread rein (on the Spanish bit) would stop them; and stopped short, at speed, they do not jostle the rider or throw him forward. They leap on anything—man, beast or weapon, on which their master directs them. But this description, so far as conduct and behavior are concerned, of course only applies to the trained and domesticated horse.—*Nat. Intelligence.*

REMARKABLE ESCAPE FROM PRISON.

[Two French gentlemen, Messrs. De Latude and D'Alegre, were imprisoned in the Bastille,* at the instance of that implacable woman, Madam De Pompadour. An intimation having been given them that they had no hope of release, De Latude resolved to escape, or perish in the attempt. We give his story in his own words:]

“To any man who had the least notion of the situation of the Bastille—its extent, its towers, its discipline, and the incredible precautions which despotism had multiplied, more surely to chain its victims—the mere idea of escaping from it would appear the effect of insanity, and would inspire nothing but pity for a wretch so devoid of sense as to dare to conceive it. A moment's reflection would suffice to show that it was hopeless to attempt an escape by the gates. Every physical impossibility was united to render this impracticable. We had no resource but by the outside. There was in our chamber a fireplace, the chimney of which came out in the extreme height of the tower; it was full of gratings and bars of iron, which, in several parts of it, scarcely left a free passage for the smoke. Should we be able to get to the top of the tower, we should have below us a precipice of great height, at the bottom of which was a fosse, or broad ditch, surrounded by a very lofty wall, to be got over. We were without assistance, without tools, without materials, constantly watched, night and day, and guarded, besides, by a great number of sentinels, who surrounded the outworks of the

* In July, 1789, the walls of this celebrated prison were leveled with the ground. One of the prisoners, Count de Lorges, had been confined thirty-two years, and excited great public sympathy. The great key of the outer gate was presented by La Fayette to General Washington.

Bastille. So many obstacles, so many dangers, did not deter me. I hinted my scheme to my comrade; he thought me a madman, and relapsed into despair. I was obliged alone to digest my plan, to anticipate the frightful host of difficulties which opposed its execution, and find the means of remedying them all. To accomplish our object we had to climb to the top of the chimney, notwithstanding the many iron gratings which were opposed to our ascent; and then, in order to descend from the top of the tower into the fosse, we required a ladder of eighty feet at least, and another ladder, necessarily of wood, to get out of the fosse. If I could get these materials I must hide them from every eye, must work without noise, deceive all our spies, and this for months together. Now for the details of my operations. Our first object was to find a place of concealment for our tools and materials, in case we should be so fortunate as to procure any. By dint of reflecting on the subject, a thought struck me which appeared to me a very happy one. I had occupied several different chambers in the Bastille, and had always observed, whenever the chambers either above or below me were inhabited, that I had heard very distinctly any noise made in either. On the present occasion I heard all the movements of the prisoner above, but not of him below; nevertheless, I felt confident there was a prisoner there. I conjectured, at last, that there might be a double floor, with a space between each. I took the following means to satisfy myself on the point. There was in the Bastille a chapel, at which, by special favor of Monsieur Berryer, we, as well as the prisoner below, in No. 3, were allowed to hear mass. I resolved to take advantage, when mass should be over, of a moment before the prisoner below was locked up, to take a view of his chamber. I pointed out to D'Alegre how he was to assist me. I told him to put his tooth-pick case in his pocket-handkerchief, and when we should be on the second floor, by pulling out his pocket-handkerchief, to let his tooth-pick case fall all the way down stairs, and then to request the turnkey to go and pick it up. My little plan succeeded. While the turnkey was going after the tooth-pick case, I ran quickly up to No. 3. I drew back the bolt of the door, I examined the height of the chamber from the floor, and found it about ten feet six inches. I shut the door, and from this room to ours I counted thirty-two steps, measured the height of one of them, and, making my calculation, I came to the conclusion that there must be, between the floor of our chamber and the ceiling of that below, a space of five feet six inches, which could not be filled up either by stones or wood, on account of their weight. As soon as we were shut up and bolted in, I embraced D'Alegre with delight. 'My friend,' said I, 'patience and courage—we are saved! We can hide our ropes and materials—that is all that is wanted! We are saved!' 'What!'

said he, 'have you not given up your dreams? Ropes and materials!—where are they, and where shall we get them?' 'Ropes,' said I, 'why we have more than we want; that trunk (showing him mine) contains a thousand feet of them.' Looking at me steadfastly, he replied, 'My good friend, endeavor to regain your senses, and to calm the frenzy which agitates you. I know the contents of your trunk; there is not a single inch of rope in it.' 'Ay,' said I, 'but have I not a large stock of linen—twelve dozen of shirts, a great number of napkins, stockings, nightcaps, and other things—will not they supply us? We will unravel them, and we shall have ropes enough.' 'But how are we to extract the iron gratings of our chimney?' said D'Alegre; 'where are we to get the materials for the wooden ladder which we shall want?—where obtain tools for all these works?—we cannot create things.' 'My friend,' I replied, 'it is genius which creates, and we have that which despair gives, that will guide our hands; once more, we are saved!' We had a flat table, supported by iron legs; we gave them an edge by rubbing them on the tiled floor: of the steel of our tinder-box we made, in less than two hours, a good knife, with which we formed two handles to these iron legs: the principal use of these was to force out the gratings of our chimney. In the evening, the daily inspection being over, with these iron legs we raised some tiles of our floor, and, by digging for about six hours, we discovered that our conjectures were well founded, and that there was a vacant space between the floor and ceiling of about four feet. We replaced the tiles so that they scarcely appeared to have been raised. This done, we ripped the seams and hems of two shirts, and drew out the threads of them one by one. These we tied together, and wound them on a number of small balls, which we afterwards rewound on two larger balls, each of which was composed of fifty threads, sixty feet long. We twisted these, and formed a cord of about fifty-five feet long, and with it constructed a rope ladder, which was intended to support us aloft, while we drew out of the chimney the bars and spikes of iron with which it was armed. This was the most painful and troublesome of our labors, and cost us six months' toil, the recollection of which makes one shudder. We could only work by bending our bodies in the most painful positions: an hour at a time was all we could bear, and we never came down without hands covered with blood. The iron bars were fastened with an extremely hard mortar, which we had no means of softening but by blowing water with our mouths into the holes as we worked them. Judge what this work must have been, when we were well pleased if, in a whole night, we had worked away the eighth of an inch of this mortar. When we got a bar out, we replaced it in its holes, that, when we were inspected, the deficiency might not appear, and so

as to enable us to take all of them out at once, should we be in a situation to escape. After six months of this obstinate and cruel work, we applied ourselves to the wooden ladder which was necessary to mount from the fosse upon the parapet, and from thence into the governor's garden. This ladder required to be twenty feet long. We devoted to this part of our work nearly all our fuel; it consisted of round logs about eighteen or twenty inches long. We found we should want blocks or pulleys, and several other things, for which a saw was indispensable. I made one with an iron candlestick, by means of half of the steel of the tinder-box from which I had made the knife: with this piece of the steel, the saw, and the iron legs of our table, we reduced the size of our logs; we made tenons and mortices in them, to join them one into the other, with two holes through each, and two joints, to prevent swagging. We made the ladder with only one upright, through which we put twenty rounds, each round being fifteen inches long. The upright was three inches diameter, so that each round projected, clear, six inches on each side of the upright. To every piece of which the ladder was composed, the proper round of each joint was tied with a string, to enable us to put it together readily in the dark. As we completed each piece we concealed it between the two floors. With the tools we had made we completed the tools of our workshop. We had a pair of compasses, a square, a carpenter's rule, &c. &c., and hid them in our magazine."

De Latude goes on to detail the precautions which he and his companion in misfortune took, in case any of the jailers should be listening, to give feigned names for everything they used in their work, and states the names used by them for each article. He then proceeds with his narrative:—

"These things being complete we set about our principal ladder, which was to be at least eighty feet long. We began by unraveling our linen; shirts, napkins, nightcaps, stockings, drawers, pocket-handkerchiefs—every thing which could supply thread or silk. As we made a ball we concealed it in Polyphemus, (the name they called the hiding-place,) and when we had a sufficient quantity, we employed a whole night in twisting it into a rope; and I defy a ropemaker to have done it better. The upper part of the building of the Bastille overhangs three or four feet. This would necessarily occasion our ladder to wave and swing about as we came down it, enough to turn the strongest head. To obviate this, and to prevent our fall, we made a second rope 160 feet long. This rope was to be reeved through a kind of double block without sheaves, in case the person descending should be suspended in the air without being able to get down lower. Besides these, we made several other ropes of shorter lengths, to fasten our ladder to a cannon, and for

other unforeseen occasions. When all these ropes were finished, we measured them—they amounted to 1400 feet. We then made 208 rounds for the rope and wooden ladders. To prevent the noise which the rounds would make against the wall during our descent, we gave them coverings formed of pieces of the linings of our morning-gowns, of our waistcoats, and our under-waistcoats. In all these preparations we employed eighteen months, but still they were incomplete. We had provided means to get to the top of the tower, to get into and out of the fosse: two more were wanting—one to climb up on the parapet; from the parapet into the governor's garden; from thence to get down into the fosse of the Port St. Antoine; but the parapet which we had to cross was always well furnished with sentinels. We might fix on a dark and rainy night, when the sentinels did not go their rounds, and escape by those means, but it might rain when we climbed our chimney, and might clear up at the very moment when we arrived at the parapet: we should then meet with the chief of the rounds, who constantly inspected the parapet, and he being always provided with lights, it would be impossible to conceal ourselves, and we should be inevitably ruined. The other plan increased our labors, but was the less dangerous of the two. It consisted in making a way through the wall which separates the fosse of the Bastille from that of the Port St. Antoine. I considered that in the numerous floods, during which the Seine had filled this fosse, the water must have injured the mortar, and rendered it less difficult, and so we should be enabled to break a passage through the wall. For this purpose we should require an augur to make holes in the mortar, so as to insert the points of the two iron bars to be taken out of our chimney, and with them force out the stones, and so make our way through. Accordingly we made an augur with one of the feet of our bedsteads, and fastened a handle to it in the form of a cross. We fixed on Wednesday, the 25th February, 1756, for our flight: the river had overflowed its banks: there were four feet of water in the fosse of the Bastille, as well as in that of the Port St. Antoine, by which we hoped to effect our deliverance. I filled a leathern portmanteau with a change of clothes for both, in case we were so fortunate as to escape.

“Dinner was scarcely over when we set up our great ladder of ropes, that is, we put the rounds to it, and hid it under our beds; then we arranged our wooden ladder in three pieces. We put our iron bars in their cases to prevent their making a noise; and we packed up our bottle of usquebaugh to warm us, and restore our strength during our work in the water, up to the neck, for nine hours. These precautions taken, we waited till our supper was brought up. I first got up the chimney. I had the rheumatism in my left arm, but I thought little of the pain; I soon experienced one much more

severe. I had taken none of the precautions used by chimney-sweepers. I was nearly choked by the soot; and having no guards on my knees and elbows, they were so excoriated that the blood ran down on my legs and hands. As soon as I got to the top of the chimney, I let down a piece of twine to D'Alegre; to this he attached the end of the rope to which our portmanteau was fastened. I drew it up, unfastened it, and threw it on the platform of the Bastille. In the same way we hoisted up the wooden ladder, the two iron bars, and all our other articles; we finished by the ladder of ropes, the end of which I allowed to hang down to aid D'Alegre in getting up, while I held the upper part by means of a large wooden peg which we had prepared on purpose. I passed it through the cord, and placed it across the funnel of the chimney. By these means my companion avoided suffering what I did. This done, I came down from the top of the chimney, where I had been in a very painful position, and both of us were on the platform of the Bastille. We now arranged our different articles. We began by making a roll of our ladder of ropes, of about four feet diameter, and one thick. We rolled it to the tower called *La Tour du Treson*, which appeared to us the most favorable for our descent. We fastened one end of the ladder of ropes to a piece of cannon, and then lowered it down the wall; then we fastened the block, and passed the rope of one hundred and sixty feet long through it. This I tied round my body, and D'Alegre slackened it as I went down. Notwithstanding this precaution, I swung about in the air at every step I made. Judge what my situation was, when one shudders at the recital of it. At length, I landed without accident in the fosse.—Immediately, D'Alegre lowered my portmanteau and other things. I found a little spot uncovered by water, on which I put them.—Then my companion followed my example; but he had an advantage which I had not had, for I held the ladder for him with all my strength, which greatly prevented its swinging. It did not rain; and we heard the sentinel marching at about four toises* distance, and we were, therefore, forced to give up our plan of escaping by the parapet and the governor's garden. We resolved to use our iron bars. We crossed the fosse straight over to the wall which divides it from the *Port St. Antoine*, and went to work sturdily.—Just at this point there was a small ditch about six feet broad and one deep, which increased the depth of the water. Elsewhere it was about up to our middles; here, to our armpits. It had thawed only a few days, so that the water had yet floating ice in it; we were nine hours in it, exhausted by fatigue, and benumbed with the cold. We had hardly begun our work before the chief of the watch

* A toise is six and a half feet.

came round with his lantern, which cast a light on the place we were in: we had no alternative but to put our heads under water as he passed, which was every half hour.

“At length, after nine hours of incessant alarm and exertion, after having worked out the stones one by one, we succeeded in making, in a wall four feet six inches thick, a hole sufficiently wide, and we both crept through. We were giving way to our transports, when we fell into a danger which we had not foreseen, and which had nearly been fatal to both of us. In crossing the fosse St. Antoine, to get into the road to Bercy, we fell into the aqueduct which was in the middle. This aqueduct had ten feet of water over our heads, and two feet of mud on the side. D’Alegre fell on me, and had nearly thrown me down: had that misfortune happened we were lost, for we had not strength enough left to get up again, and we must have smothered. Finding myself laid hold of by D’Alegre, I gave him a blow with my fist, which made him let go, and, at the same instant, throwing myself forward, I got out of the aqueduct. I then felt for D’Alegre, and getting hold of his hair, drew him to me: we were soon out of the fosse, and just as the clock struck five, were on the high road. Penetrated by the same feeling, we threw ourselves into each other’s arms, and after a long embrace, we fell on our knees, to offer thanks to the Almighty, who had snatched us from so many dangers.”

WATER, THE PRESERVER.

It is said of the celebrated Pliny “that he considered it a great absurdity that mankind should bestow so much labor and expense in making, artificially, such a variety of liquors, when nature has supplied to their hands a drink of so superior a quality as water.”

The celebrated Boerhaave, a medical writer of great note, places water as superior to all drinks, saying, “If *drink* be required merely for allaying thirst, or dryness, and diminishing the acrimony of the fluids, then is pure water, obtained from a clear running stream, the *best* drink for robust man.” Again he says, “Plain food, and *water* for *drink*, render our bodies the most firm and strong.”

Dr. Hufeman, a Prussian physician of great fame, considered water as a preventive of many diseases, as well as an absolute cure of them. His positions are: “First, that pure waters are agreeable to the different natures of all men. Secondly, that no remedy can more effectually secure health and prevent diseases than water.”

He also observes that drinkers of water are more healthy and long-lived than drinkers of wine or malt liquors. It gives them a better appetite, and renders them plump and fleshy. It also preserves their teeth much sounder and whiter. He adds, that "drinkers of water are more alert and active, in body and mind, than beer-bibbers." He speaks, also, of water as a *remedy* suited to all persons at all times; that there is no better preservative from all distempers; that it is assuredly serviceable in acute and chronic diseases; and lastly, that its use answers to all indications, both of preservation and cure. And we find, in the writings of this man, an idea which I had often expressed respecting mineral springs, viz: "The major part of their efficacy is, beyond all dispute, owing to the quantity of pure elementary water which they contain."

A person is afflicted with the dyspepsia, the disease of modern living, and resorts to the mineral springs for his health. There he drinks daily, say fifteen tumblers of the water, and soon derives undoubted benefit. We have not a word to say in disparagement of such medicinal waters; they have efficacy as a medicine. But I have a long time supposed, that if some of these dyspeptics would repair to some of our common rivers, drink the same quantity of water from them, and be equally abstemious in their food, they would derive the same or equal benefit. Is it not a fact, in many cases, that bodily fluids have become *gross*, and need a *diluting* process of purification by water?

On the art of prolonging life, Dr. Hufeman says: "The best drink is water, a liquor commonly despised and deemed prejudicial. I will not hesitate, however, to declare it to be one of the greatest means of prolonging human life." He then mentions a surgeon, who, at the age of forty, was a miserable hypochondriac; but who was afterwards cured by the use of water, and who lived to the age of eighty, his last years being the most healthy. Again he says: "Water is the greatest promoter of digestion; it assists all the secretions of the body."

Another writer observes: "Water-drinkers are more healthy and long-lived than others. In such the faculties of the body and mind are stronger, their teeth whiter and more perfect, and their sight less subject to failure."

Another writer says: "All drinks supply the wants of nature only by the quantity of elementary water which they contain." This sentiment should be remembered.

The celebrated Dr. Jackson, of the British West Indies, says: "I have wandered a good deal about the world; my health has been tried all ways; and, by the aid of temperance and hard work, I have worn out two armies in two wars, and probably could wear out another before my period of old age should arrive. I eat no

animal food, drink no wines or malt liquors, or spirits of any kind. I regard neither wind nor rain, heat nor cold, when business is in the way."

Dr. Mosely says: "I aver from my own knowledge and custom, as well as from that of others, that those who drink *nothing but water*, or make it their principal drink, are but little affected by the climate, and can endure the greatest fatigue without inconvenience."

Navigators from northerly regions testify that the greater part of those who die from the cold are those who use other drinks than water, while the water-drinkers survive.

Dr. Beardsley says, respecting the water-drinkers in Asia, near the Himalaya mountains, "that they were able to carry a burden of four hundred weight; and that one of them had more strength than three British soldiers, as one of their officers affirmed."

DEATH NOT A PAINFUL PROCESS.

We think that most persons have been led to regard dying as a much more painful change than it generally is; first, because they have found by what they experienced in themselves and observed in others, that sentient beings often struggle when in distress; hence struggling to them is a sign, an invariable sign of distress. But we may remark, that struggles are very far from being invariable signs of distress; muscular action and consciousness are two distinct things, often existing separately; and we have abundant reason to believe that in a great proportion of cases, those struggles of a dying man which are so distressing to behold, are as entirely independent of consciousness as the struggles of a recently decapitated fowl. A second reason why men are led to regard dying as a very painful change, is, because men often endure great pain without dying, and forgetting that like causes produce like effects only under similar circumstances, they infer that life cannot be destroyed without still greater pain. But the pains of death are much less than most persons have been led to believe, and we doubt not that many persons who live to the age of puberty, undergo tenfold more misery than they would, did they understand correct views concerning the change. In all cases of dying, the individual suffers no pain after the sensibility of his nervous system is destroyed, which is often without much and sometimes without any previous pain. Those who are struck dead by a stroke of lightning, those who are decapitated with one blow of the axe, and those who are instantly destroyed by a crush of the brain, experience no pain at all in passing

from a state of life to a dead state. One moment's expectation of being thus destroyed far exceeds in misery the pain during the act. Those who faint in having a little blood taken from the arm, or on any other occasion, have already endured all the misery they ever would did they not again revive. Those who die of fevers and most other diseases suffer their greatest pain, as a general thing, hours, or even days, before they expire. The sensibility of the nervous system becomes gradually diminished; their pain becomes less and less acute under the same existing cause; and at the moment when their friends think them in the greatest distress, they are more at ease than they have been for many days previous; their disease, as far as respects their feelings, begins to act upon them like an opiate. Indeed, many are already dead as it respects themselves, when ignorant bystanders are much the most to be pitied, not for the loss of their friends, but for their sympathizing anguish. Those diseases which destroy life without immediately affecting the nervous system, give rise to more pain than those that do affect the system so as to impair its sensibility. The most painful deaths which human beings inflict upon each other are produced by rack and fagot. The halter is not so cruel as either of these, but more savage than the axe. Horror and pain considered, it seems to us that we should choose a narcotic to either.—*Charles Knoulton, M. D.*

MEMORY OF A MOTHER.

John Randolph, some years since, addressed himself to an intimate friend in something like the following words:—

“I used to be called a Frenchman, because I took the French side in politics; and though this was unjust, yet the truth is, I should have been a French Atheist if it had not been for one recollection, and that was the time when my departed mother used to take my little hand in hers, and cause me, on her knees, to say, ‘Our Father which art in heaven.’”

How I remember well the time—
 It seems but yesterday!—when thou
 Would'st with a mild, unruffled brow,
 Bid me put by my childish rhyme,
 And listen to the word of God.
 * * * Let good or ill betide,
 The light a mother's soul imparts
 Will radiate in her childrens' hearts
 Till all is dark beside!—BENJAMIN.

A MOTHER'S LOVE.

A mother's love! How thrilling the sound! The angelic spirit that watched over our infant years, and cheered us with her smiles. Oh! how faithfully does memory cling to the fast-fading mementos of a parent's home, to remind us of the sweet counsels of a mother's tongue. And oh! how instinctively do we hang over the scenes of our early boyhood, brightened by the recollection of that waking eye which never closed while a single wave of misfortune or danger sighed around her child! Like the lone star of the heavens in the deep solitude of nature's night, she sits the presiding divinity of the family mansion—its delight and its charm, its stay and its hope—while all around her is overshadowed with the gloom of despondency and despair.

The cherished object of her affection has risen to manhood's years, and exchanged the sportive morn of being for the busy and stirring adventures of the world; and yet, wherever he may wander—into whatever clime or country inclination or duty may invite his wayward footsteps, whether facing the wintery storm or buffeting the mountain snows—the undying prayer of a mother's love lingers on his path, and sheds its holiest incense upon his pillow.

HON. J. A. BRYAN.

MARSEILLES HYMN.

[The "Marseilles" has been once more revived by the exciting news from France, and is played and sung wherever the intelligence has gone. We give an old, but admirable translation of this splendid national lyric. Our readers, no doubt, remember the romantic story of its composition by Rouget de Lisle, related by Lamartine in his "History of the Girondists."]

Ye sons of France, awake to Glory!
 Hark! hark what myriads bid you rise;
 Your children, wives, and grandsires hoary,
 Behold their tears and hear their cries.
 Shall hateful Tyrants, mischief breeding,
 With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
 Affright and desolate the land,
 While Peace and Liberty lie bleeding?

(CHORUS.)—To arms! to arms ye brave!
 Th' Avenging Sword unsheath!
 March on, march on—all hearts resolved
 On Liberty or Death!

Now, now the dangerous storm is rolling,
 Which treach'rous kings confederate raise;
 The dogs of war, let loose, are howling,
 And lo! our fields and cities blaze.
 And shall we basely view the ruin,
 While lawless force with guilty stride
 Spreads desolation far and wide,
 With crime and blood his hands embruing?

With luxury and pride surrounded,
 The vile, insatiate despots dare—
 Their thirst of gold and power unbounded—
 To mete and vend the light and air.
 Like beasts of burden would they load us,
 Like tyrants bid their slaves adore:
 But man is man, and who is more?
 Nor shall they longer lash and goad us.

O, Liberty! can man resign thee?
 Once having felt thy gen'rous flame,
 Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee,
 Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
 Too long the world has wept, bewailing
 That falsehood's dagger tyrants wield;
 But Freedom is our sword and shield,
 And all their arts are unavailing.

The following beautiful and instructive lines are from the pen of Sir Robert Grant, late Governor-General of India.

O Saviour, whose mercy, severe in its kindness,
 Has chastened my wanderings and guided my way,
 Adored be the power which illumined my blindness,
 And weaned me from phantoms that smiled to betray.

Enchanted with all that was dazzling and fair,
 I followed the rainbow; I caught at the toy,
 And still in displeasure, thy goodness was there,
 Disappointing the hope, and defeating the joy.

The blossom blushed bright, but a worm was below;
 The moonlight shone fair, there was blight in the beam;
 Sweet whispered the breeze, but it whispered of woe;
 And bitterness flowed in the soft flowing stream.

So, cured of my folly, yet cured but in part,
 I turned to the refuge thy pity displayed;
 And still did this eager and credulous heart
 Weave visions of promise that bloomed but to fade.

I thought that the course of the pilgrim to heaven
 Would be bright as the summer, and glad as the morn;
 Thou show'dst me the path; it was dark and uneven,
 All rugged with rocks, and all tangled with thorn.

I dreamed of celestial reward and renown;
 I grasped at the triumph which blesses the brave;
 I asked for the palm branch, the robe and the crown;
 I asked—and thou show'dst me a cross and a grave.

Subdued and instructed, at length, to thy will;
 My hopes and my longings I fain would resign;
 O give me the heart that can wait and be still,
 Nor know of a wish or a pleasure but thine.

There are mansions exempted from sin and from woe,
 But they stand in a region by mortals untrod;
 There are rivers of joy—but they roll not below;
 There is rest—but it dwells in the presence of God.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

DR. ASHBEL GREEN.

This venerable servant of God died, in the 86th year of his age, in *Philadelphia*, on the 19th May, 1848. For half a century he had been known as a Christian minister. He and the late Bishop White were the first Chaplains to Congress. He was many years President of Princeton College, and subsequently editor of an able monthly journal. His talents and position gave him a controlling influence in the Presbyterian church.

Ashbel Green, D.D., LL.D., was born at *Hanover*, N.J., in 1762. He graduated at Princeton in 1783, and received, at the time of his graduation, the double distinction of the first honor for scholarship, and the valedictory. In the summer of 1783, the Continental Congress was sitting at Princeton. The members were invited to attend the commencement, and were seated, with General Washington, on the platform. Young Green, in delivering his valedictory, took occasion to make a direct and highly eloquent address to General Washington. This produced such an effect, that the young orator was formally invited to dine with the Congress, and received special marks of consideration from the Commander-in-Chief. In the same year, 1783, he was appointed a tutor in the College. This office he held two years. In 1785, he was appointed Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, which chair he continued to fill until 1787. In that year, he was called to be the associate of the Rev. Dr. Sproat, in the pastorship of the Second Presbyterian Church of Philadelphia. Dr. Sproat died of the yellow fever in 1793. Dr. Green was then assisted first by Dr. Abeel, and afterwards, from 1799 to 1812, by Dr. Janeway.

It was during this period of twenty-five years, from 1787 to 1812,

that Dr. Green made his chief impression upon the minds of Philadelphians. He was then in the vigor of his days, and was greatly distinguished for his pulpit eloquence. He was, during the latter part of that period, universally regarded as the first pulpit orator in the Presbyterian Church in the United States.

In 1812, he was elected President of Princeton College. Under his administration the college was eminently flourishing.

In 1823, being over sixty years of age, he resigned the presidency, and returned to Philadelphia. He commenced the publication of the *Christian Advocate*, which acquired great celebrity and had great weight and influence among Presbyterians. He, at this time, preached gratuitously to a congregation of colored persons.

When President of Princeton College, he originated the Theological Seminary attached to that institution, and at the time of his death was president of the board of directors. He was President of the Trustees of the Jefferson Medical School, and the oldest living member of the American Philosophical Society.

He was one of those who brought about the original organization of the General Assembly, and through his influence mainly the Home Missionary and other Boards of the Presbyterian Church were formed.

During the sessions of Congress, in Philadelphia, he and the late Bishop White were invited to officiate as chaplains.

He took a very active and decided part in the measures which led to the division of the Presbyterian church in 1836 and '37. Since the struggle, which led to that separation, he had withdrawn himself entirely from ecclesiastical affairs. His increasing years and bodily infirmities confined him to his house. As an evidence, however, of the affectionate reverence with which he was regarded, the following fact was adduced. Two years since, the General Assembly met at Philadelphia. One day, during its sessions, Dr. Green visited it. When he was seen entering the door, the whole assembly rose and remained standing until he had taken his seat. The same thing occurred when he retired.

He is buried in the old grave yard at Princeton, where all the former Presidents of the College now lie—Dickinson, Burr, Edwards, Witherspoon, Smith, Green—an illustrious file of great and good men.

THE ARCHBISHOP OF PARIS.

The noble devotion of this distinguished prelate, during the recent bloody scenes in Paris, has excited universal admiration. When a Christian minister willingly ventures his life to save his people, the

act is so truly in unison with the holy principles of his faith and the example of his Lord, that it becomes a duty to record a sacrifice so magnanimous; and we desire to know something of the history of such a man.

DENNIS AUGUSTE AFFRE was born at a small town in the south of France, on the 28th of September, 1793. His family is highly respectable, and one of his brothers is a member of the National Assembly, having received the suffrages of nearly all the voters of his district. The conduct of Dennis Auguste in early life was always exemplary: at college he took a distinguished rank in all his classes, and finished his studies with brilliant success. He prosecuted his theological studies at the seminary of St. Sulpice, in Paris, and was remarkable for the regularity of his conduct, the mildness of his manners, and the solidity of his mind.

After he was ordained priest he was appointed secretary to the Archbishop, and subsequently Vicar-General. In 1840 he was nominated to the coadjutorship of Strasburg; but before he was consecrated, Archbishop De Guelin having died, the court of Rome appointed M. Affre to the See of Paris, and he was consecrated on the 6th of August in the same year.

The prosperity of the numerous religious societies within his diocese, and the conduct of his clergy, are testimonies of the skill and wisdom of his administration, and his pastoral writings evince the superiority of his talents, the purity of his mind, and the sincerity of his faith.

In the last act of his life he exhibited a heroism and elevation of soul rarely witnessed. When the terrible conflict, in June last, between the citizens of Paris was at its height, and the blood of the people over whom he was pastor was flowing in the streets, he determined to risk his own life that he might arrest the carnage. For this purpose, accompanied by two of his vicars, he proceeded by the Rue St. Antoine to the Place de la Bastille, where the fight was raging.

The welcome which he had received from General Cavaignac was but a prelude to what he met with in the places near the scene of the combat. His resolution was praised; he was surrounded by citizens, soldiers, and women, who fell on their knees, and were unanimous in calling down blessings on the head of the envoy of God, and in imploring his benediction. Some among them, more prudent than the rest, represented to him the danger, perhaps useless, which he would incur. His reply was, "It is my duty to offer up my life."

On reaching the scene of combat, which was then going on with great severity, he asked the colonel who was in command whether it was not possible to stop his fire for a few moments; he hoped by

such a plan that that of the insurgents would also be suspended, and that during this temporary truce he might make himself known, and come to a parley with them. The colonel, admiring the feeling of the archbishop, yielded to his request, and the anticipations of the prelate were realized, for the firing ceased simultaneously on both sides. The insurgents mounted on the top of their barricade, and held the butt-ends of their muskets in the air. The archbishop and his two vicars-general, M. Jacquemet and M. Ravinet, advanced toward the barricade. One man alone, dressed in a blouse, preceded him, carrying a branch of a tree in his hand, as a mark of conciliation. The insurgents, on their part, descended from their barricade, some of them appearing pacifically inclined, and others with menace in their features and in their language. By a zeal which can be readily understood, the combatants on the side of order could not reconcile it to themselves to see the archbishop thus exposed to the rage of men who had, on that very day, murdered some persons who had been sent to parley with them. They therefore neglected the request of the prelate, and advanced, and were thus face to face with their enemies. Reproaches and threats were exchanged, and personal struggles took place.

During these altercations, which for some time delayed the accomplishment of the holy mission, a musket was fired; but it is not known on which side, or whether it was by accident or intentionally. In an instant a cry of "Treason! treason!" arose on all sides; the combatants retired, and the firing became more severe than ever. The archbishop was thus placed between two fires: he showed no alarm; he never thought of escaping to the right or left. He advanced toward the barricade, and, still accompanied by his vicars-general, he mounted it and reached the summit. He was thus in view of both parties. The balls whistled round him, but at this time appeared to respect him. One of his attendants had three balls through his hat.

Such a reception left him no alternative but to descend the barricade. In the act of doing so, a ball which was fired from a side window pierced his loins. The insurgents ran to his assistance, and his fall produced a profound sensation. In an hour after the firing ceased, not to recommence.

The next day he was carried to his palace, and died there, exclaiming with his last breath that he willingly sacrificed himself for his misguided people.

[We have been obliged, on account of the press of documents and other matter in this number, to withhold several biographical sketches which we had prepared.]

OBITUARY NOTICES.

MAY

6. At *Lisbon*, Portugal, GEN. FOLQUE, a veteran officer, aged 102.

12. In *England*, ALEXANDER BARING, LORD ASHBURTON, in his 78th year. During the early period of his life he passed much of his time in the United States, where he married the daughter of General Bingham, and was connected by commercial ties with a vast number of the banks and mercantile establishments in the States. His visit to Washington in 1842 as English Ambassador, with the object of settling the Maine boundary question, will be fresh in the memory of our readers. The successful issue of that negotiation, and the subsequent settlement of the Oregon dispute, which Lord Ashburton promoted by every means in his power, removed all ground of difference between the two countries, and the part which Lord Ashburton took in these transactions will be gratefully remembered. He retired from business in 1829, and was created a Peer in 1835. He was a highly intelligent, indeed accomplished man. He was on intimate terms with all the leading statesmen of Europe of all parties; his great experience gave him a vast influence. His chief wealth was derived from the successful French loan in 1815. He is succeeded by William Bingham Baring, in the title and estates. His second son, Francis, continues at the head of the mercantile firm; Mr. Mildmay, Lord Ashburton's son-in-law, having retired about two months ago, Mr. Joshua Bates and Charles Baring Young are now the other remaining partners. The death of Lord Ashburton following so close upon the decease of his brothers, Sir Thomas Baring and Mr. Henry Baring, both of whom have died within a month, has been the theme of general regret.—(*N. Y. Courier.*)

18. REV. DR. JOHN MATTHEWS, Professor in the Theological Seminary, Indiana, in his 78th year.

27. Near Kensington Church, *England*, the PRINCESS SOPHIA, aged 71; the twelfth child of George 3d, and aunt to Queen Victoria. She was an amiable and benevolent lady.

29. Near *Edinburgh*, Scotland, Sir THOMAS DICK LANDER, Bart., distinguished by his literary talents.

JUNE

4. At *Albany*, N. Y., MATTHEW GREGORY, in his 91st year. He was one of the army of the Revolution. He was commissioned a lieutenant, and served in Hamilton's brigade at the capture of Cornwallis. It is stated that he was the last surviving member of the society of Cincinnati.

4. At *New York*, CHARLES G. FERRIS, Esq., formerly member of Congress.

7. MAJOR GEORGE TRIPNER, a soldier of the Revolution and of the last war, died at his residence in *Philadelphia*, in the 87th year of his age. He was born in Baltimore, in April, 1762, and enlisted as a drummer, under Lieut. Lytle, in Col. Johnson's regiment of infantry, his father at the same time being a private also in the Pennsylvania line. Major Tripner, with his father, was upon the field the day after the battle of Bunker's Hill; he was at Valley Forge with Gen. Washington, being attached to Wayne's Brigade, and was at Yorktown at the surrender of Lord Cornwallis. He was at the battles of White Plains, Monmouth, Germantown, Brandywine and Stony Point, and throughout the entire campaign rendered no little service to his country.

12. At *Quebec*, GEORGE POZER, Esq., at the advanced age of 95 years.

Mr. Pozer was a native of Welstade, in the Grand Duchy of Baden: he was born on the 21st November, 1752. Went to England in 1773, from whence he emigrated to Philadelphia, and soon after settled at Schoharie, at that time the far west of the State of New York; here he remained till the revolution, when, being a determined loyalist, he escaped to New York. On the acknowledgement of the independence of the United States by Great Britain, he returned to England. He came to Quebec with his family in 1785, with a large and valuable stock of goods, and commenced business.

[Mr. Pozer was considered the John Jacob Astor of Quebec. He was the largest landholder in that city, and must have left a very large estate. He retained his mental faculties to an age far beyond the common lot of man. The last time we saw him was some four years ago at Kingston, when he conversed about men and things with all the freshness of youth.—*Commercial Advertiser*.]

13. PROFESSOR G. S. OLDS, at *Circleville*, Ohio, in his 71st year. He was a distinguished literary man, and formerly held the office of Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Williams College.

GEN. PIERRE VAN CORTLANDT, in *Westchester Co.*, N. Y. This gentleman filled many important public stations, both civil and military. He was one of the Electors of the State when Thomas Jefferson was elected President; and forty years afterwards, when Gen. Harrison was elected. In 1811–12, he represented his district in the Congress of the United States. At the first appointment of officers for the Westchester County Bank, in 1833, Gen. Van Cortlandt was elected its President, and so continued up to the time of his death. He was one of the Wardens of the Episcopal Church, in the village of Peeksville, and contributed liberally in erecting and supporting it. He has left but one child, Col. Pierre Van Cortlandt, who resides at the Mansion House, at Croton. His only remaining sister, the lady of the late Philip Van Rensselaer, formerly Mayor of Albany, at the advanced age of 83, was present at Croton, at the family sepulchre, to witness the last tribute of respect and sad offices paid to the memory of her deceased brother. As he had lived, so he died, in the firm belief of the merits of a Saviour.

16. At *Darmstadt*, the GRAND DUKE OF HESSE.

24. At *Puebla*, Mexico, GEN. ANTONIO GAGNA, at the age of 64. He had been fifty-two years in the Mexican service. He was Governor of St. Juan de Ulua, when bombarded by the French, and distinguished himself as a brave man in the late bloody battles of the valley. He adhered to Iturbide during all the vicissitudes of fortune, and was a gallant, benevolent and courtly gentleman.

26. At *Schenectady*, N. Y., Hon. JOHN I. DE GRAFF, formerly a Representative in Congress. He was a very worthy and much respected citizen.

HON. STEVENSON ARCHER, Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals of *Maryland*. In his station he maintained a reputation for pure integrity and thorough legal knowledge.

EDWARD B. PHILLIPS, at *Brattleboro*, Vermont. He bequeathed to Harvard University \$100,000. With a fortune which could have commanded worldly comforts without stint, Mr. Phillips, at the early age of twenty-three, was weary even of the limited enjoyment in which he indulged, and was driven by *ennui* to a state of insanity in which he became a self-murderer. He has left property to the value of nine hundred thousand dollars.

29. MR. ALEXANDER S. FORBES, of N. Y., at New Orleans. He had been to Mexico for the bodies of Lt. Col. Baxter, of N. Y., Capts. Pearson and Barclay, Lieuts. Gallagher and Chandler, of N. Y., and Capt. Van Olinda, of Albany, and was returning home with them.

At *Cape May*, Mr. O. P. PEARSE, a merchant of Philadelphia. He was bathing with his sister-in-law, who is an expert swimmer, and ventured out too far. He was swept out by the current—the lady was saved by the surf boat.

JULY.

2. At *Chambersburgh*, Pa., Hon. ALEXANDER THOMPSON, formerly a member of Congress.

HON. JAMES H. GHOLSON, Circuit Judge at *Petersburgh*, Virginia.

3. In *Providence*, R. I., Mrs. MARY BACON, aged 108 years, the oldest person in the state.

4. At *Paris*, M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND, a distinguished writer, aged 80. He was the author of the "Genius of Christianity," and has left ten volumes of memoirs.

7. At *Sydenham*, near Philadelphia, Mrs. JULIA RUSH, widow of the distinguished Dr. Benjamin Rush, and mother of the present Minister to France, in the 90th year of her age.

At *Burlington*, Vt., Rev. OLIVER W. P. PEABODY—the brother-in-law of A. H. Everett, and an able contributor to the *North American Review*. He was an accomplished scholar and an upright man.

7. At *Kingston*, on the Tennessee River, in his 68th year, Judge SAMUEL WILKESON, of Buffalo, N. Y., of which city he was one of the oldest and most enterprising citizens. Some years ago he was an active promoter of the Colonization cause. He was conscious of his approaching dissolution, and met it with perfect calmness and submission.

At *St. Martinsville*, La., WILLIAM L. BRENT, formerly a member of Congress.

19. In *New York*, Gen. ROBERT SWARTWOUT. During the last war with Great Britain, he was Quarter-Master-General of the U. S. When Gen. Covington fell at the battle of Chesterfield, he succeeded to the command.

The father of Gen. Swartwout was a soldier in the Revolutionary War, and held a commission in the Continental Army. He was a man of irreproachable character, and possessed rare and extraordinary firmness of mind.

Gen. Swartwout was, strictly, a business man.

In the walks of private life, he had some estimable qualities. His friendship was enduring. He was naturally good tempered, and at all times mild and sociable, but firm and determined. No man could be one hour in the company of Gen. Swartwout and mistake his character. Yet, with all his suavity, and pleasantry, and good temper, he was once, in high party times, involved in a duel with a gentleman (R. Riker, Esq., Recorder of the city), of equal urbanity and good temper.

At *Petersburgh*, Va., WESTON B. GALES, Esq., editor of the *Raleigh Register*, N. C., in his 47th year. He was a man of fine talents and of great benevolence.

A. P. MAURY, Esq., of *Nashville*, a useful and eminent citizen.

26. At *Harrisburg*, Pa., FRANCIS R. SHUNK, Governor of Pennsylvania. He had a short time before resigned his office. His last words were "I am anxious for the end."

Governor Shunk was born in July, 1788, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania, and had, therefore, just completed his 60th year. In 1812 he was selected by Andrew Porter, Governor Snyder's first Surveyor-General, and father of ex-Governor David R. Porter, to fill a clerkship in his department. While thus employed he studied law. In 1814, with becoming patriotism, he marched as a private in Captain Crain's rifle company, to the defence of Baltimore; and in return for this was transferred to the Staff. He was chosen Clerk of the House of Representatives in 1815; subsequently made Secretary to the Board of Canal Commissioners; and, in 1838, elevated by Governor Porter to the important post

of Secretary of the Commonwealth. In 1844 he succeeded to the gubernatorial chair, to which, in 1847, he was again elected.

HENRY CHESTER, Esq., of *Philadelphia*, aged 55. He was associated in the practice of the law with his brother-in-law, C. Chauncey, Esq. Mr. C. held an honorable position in his profession, and was much esteemed.

In *New York*, HELEN LISPENARD, wife of Col. J. W. Webb, and daughter of A. S. Stewart, Esq.

Seldom has death stricken one more widely esteemed or more deeply beloved. Born in affluence, and moving through life in the most envied social sphere, it was the happiness of Mrs. Webb to combine rare gentleness of nature and refinement of manners, with a clear and cultivated mind, and a generous, loving heart. Though eminently fitted by education, position and intellect to shine in society, she chose rather the calm delights of home and the watchful care of her children, who, with her husband, remain to mourn her irreparable loss.

31. At the city of *New York*, EDMUND SIMPSON, Esq. He had been manager of the Park Theatre for thirty-eight years, and paid to the late John J. Astor half a million of dollars as rent.

AUGUST.

4. DANIEL WARDSWORTH, at *Hartford*, Conn., in his 77th year—a gentleman of a highly cultivated taste and great benevolence. He was the brother-in-law of Prof. Silliman.

At *Brooklyn*, N. Y., Lieut. GEORGE WAINWRIGHT. In the terrible contest of Molino del Rey, he was twice wounded, and never recovered from the effects of his injuries.

In *England*, Capt. MARRYAT, the author of "Peter Simple," &c.

At *Winchester*, Virginia, HENRY ST. GEORGE TUCKER, a distinguished member of the Congress of 1812, President Judge of the Court of Appeal, and Professor of Law of the University of Charlottesville. He was sixty-nine years old, and died universally regretted.

QUARTERLY CHRONICLE.

MAY.

1. Insurrectionary movements at Rome in consequence of the Pope's refusal to declare war against Austria. The frightful butchery of the Polish insurgents in Posen by the Prussian troops. The whole of the Grand Duchy in revolt.

In Bohemia, the dissensions between the Slavonic and Teutonic races increased. The Germans threatened with expulsion from Bohemia, in which place and in Posen, excesses against the lives and property of the Jews and Germans were the order of the day.

A large fire occurred in Troy, New York,—destruction of property estimated at \$100,000.

2. Gen. Cavaignac recalled from Algeria to Paris.

Sir T. Turton, ecclesiastical registrar in Calcutta, stated to be \$400,000 deficient in the funds of his office. The Russian troops entered Jutland.

The National Medical Convention assembled at Baltimore, over which the venerable Dr. Chapman, of Philadelphia, presided—150 delegates present.

4. The opening of the National Assembly of France. The scene was a very imposing one. Lord Norinanby, Mr. Rush, and others of the diplomatic corps were present. The oaths of fidelity were dispensed with. On the next day, M. Buches was elected President. The whole assembly moved to the front of the

building and proclaimed the republic. The air was rent with the cry of "*Vive la République.*" Not less than 200,000 persons were present.

5. Gen. Santa Anna arrived at Kingston, Jamaica, where he fixed his residence.

6. Engagement between the Austrians and Piedmontese before Verona; great loss on both sides.

7. The Polish insurgents surrendered to the Prussian troops after great slaughter.—Insurrection at Madrid—several persons shot. Among those who lost their lives, was Gen. Fulgoso, captain-general of Madrid, and brother-in-law of Christina. The cause of the outbreak was the arrest of Gomez Buerro, a popular man.—The Indians of Yucatan entered the town of Marie, and butchered two hundred of the inhabitants, besides committing other outrages.

Generals Cushing, Pillow, Towson, Colonels Duncan and Childs, and other officers of the army, arrived at New Orleans. Gen. Scott had sailed direct for New York from Vera Cruz.

8. A great hail storm visited Charleston, S. C.; some of the stones that fell were $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference.

At the recent dedication of the Hancock School, Mr. Mann stated that the expenditures of the City of Boston for schools, in one year, were equal to the whole expenditure by the British government for a population of 17,000,000 in the same period.

A magnificent funeral pageant at New York in honor of the revolutionists killed in Germany.

It is stated as a remarkable fact this season, that the shad were unusually scarce on the Atlantic fishing grounds, but appeared in the Ohio river, and in good condition—a very rare thing. The mackerel fisheries at some points have also failed.

10. A civil war in the Island of Hayti between the blacks and browns. It seems that a portion of the inhabitants (the mulattoes) remonstrated with President Soloque, against certain of his measures, when he arrested eighty of their number and had them shot in cold blood. This atrocious act aroused the slumbering discontent of the friends of the murdered ones, who flew to arms. President Soloque collected his troops and marched against them.

11. The expedition under Sir James Ross sailed for the arctic regions in search of Sir John Franklin.

A most unnatural and shocking affair occurred in the town of Edgecomb, about five miles from Wiscasset Village, Maine. A man named Pinkham, about 45 years of age, by occupation a ship-carpenter, with a sharp axe completely *decapitated his wife and four children!*—the oldest child about twelve years of age—leaving the heads hanging to the bodies only by a small portion of the neck, and then cut his own throat most effectually with a razor.

12. The incorporation of Posen with Germany. The insurgent Poles disarmed—violent earthquake at Sienna, Italy.

13. Mitchell arrested in Dublin for treason.—Great fire at Detroit Michigan; loss \$250,000, and 300 families houseless.

Anniversaries of the Religious Benevolent Societies held in New York. The following are the receipts:

American Education Society, \$31,305,08; American Seamen's Friend Society, \$24,000; New York Colonization Society, \$5,650; Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church, \$108,586; Foreign Evangelical Society, \$19,438; American Anti-Slavery Society, \$9,077; Society for Ameliorating the Condition of the Jews, \$5,395; New York Institution of the Blind, \$28,643; American Home Missionary Society, \$140,497; Bible Society, \$254,377; American Tract Society, \$237,155; American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions,

estimated at \$260,000; American Protestant Society, \$28,000; American and Foreign Bible Society, \$31,521; American Baptist Home Missionary Society, \$26,136; Baptist Missionary Union, \$98,576 35.

The Episcopal Church Missionary Society for Seamen made a favorable report—and the Sunday School Union had been the means of instruction to 2,000,000 children.

The military court in the city of Mexico, which was ordered for the trial of several officers accused of burglary and murder, convicted the persons charged—Lieuts. Hare, Tilden, Dutton, and Lavery, two sergeants and a private. It was a melancholy and humiliating affair, inasmuch as all the criminals were brave and efficient soldiers in the great battles. The officers were sentenced to suffer death, but on the 25th were respited by Gen. Butler.

15. Attempted communist counter revolution in Paris. See History, page 347.

16. Trial and acquittal of Meagher in Dublin, for sedition.

17. The massacre in Naples—justified by the king on the ground of necessity; 1777 bodies were found—400 troops killed—the city was given up to pillage. The Emperor of Austria left Vienna, and retired to Innspruch.

18. The parliament of the German Empire assembled at Frankfort in St. Paul's church.

A great riot on the Hudson River railroad. The rioters armed themselves with guns, and proceeded to the house of the foreman, dragged him out of bed, and threatened to kill him. They then proceeded to the magazine of powder, containing three hundred and sixty-four kegs, or nearly 6000 pounds of powder. To this they must have applied the fuse, and then left. Soon after their departure the powder exploded, and so great was the concussion, that it shook the houses in Peekskill, a distance of twelve miles from the magazine.

News received at St. Louis of the massacre of the missionaries in Oregon, by the Cayuse Indians, at the mission establishment of Dr. Whitman. Measles and dysentery had prevailed among the Indians, and Dr. W. had visited them and administered remedies. Many of the Indians died, and they became impressed with the belief, that the Dr. had caused these deaths by giving to them poisonous drugs. He and his wife, and nine others at the station, were horribly butchered—all the property destroyed, and the remains of the murdered victims scattered by the ruthless savages about the grounds.

The people of the territory armed to punish this act of violence, and several battles were fought between them and the Indians.

19. The trial of Langfeldt in Philadelphia, for one of the most atrocious cases of murder on record, was concluded. He was convicted, and sentenced to be hung on the 20th Oct.

About this time the notorious Honora Shepherd was also convicted in New York of passing counterfeit money. She had before been tried, and served out a term in the state prison, and on that occasion applied to the late William Price to defend her.

“It is of no use for me to defend you,” said Mr. Price: “concurrent testimony alone would be sufficient to convict you; your father died in the Philadelphia prison; your mother is at Sing Sing; you have one brother in Moyamensing, Philadelphia: another in the Massachusetts state prison; and two brothers at Sing Sing. I was District Attorney when your mother was sentenced, and also when your two brothers were. I can be of no service to you.” Honora's husband, also, served out his time in state prison, and afterwards died.

20. A treaty of peace and amity made with the Navajo Indians, by Col. Newby, on the part of the United States.

22. The American Minister at Paris presented an address of congratulation to the executive government.—The cholera raging at Constantinople and Moscow.

The slave trade on the coast of Africa more active than usual—5000 slaves landed near Bahia, in Brazil, in two months.

The national democratic convention assembled at Baltimore; and chose Andrew Stevenson, of Virginia, to preside. Gen. Lewis Cass, of Michigan, was nominated as the democratic candidate for the Presidency, and Gen. W. O. Butler, of Kentucky, for the Vice Presidency.—Gen. Scott arrived in the harbor of New York, accompanied by his aids, Captains Scott, Williams and Hamilton.

23. The freedom of the negroes proclaimed at St. Pierre, Martinique—an insurrection followed—several houses, and thirty-two persons were burnt.

25. The Jewish disabilities bill was lost in the House of Lords, England.

26. Mr. John Mitchell convicted in Dublin, of sedition, and sentenced to fourteen years transportation.

A fire occurred in New York city, in the stables belonging to Kipp & Brown, omnibus proprietors—one hundred and thirty horses burned to death.

30. Battle of Goito, in Italy. The Austrians defeated by the King of Sardinia, followed by the surrender of Pischiera.—Ratifications of the treaty of Mexico exchanged with the Mexican government at Queretaro, by Messrs. Sevier and Clifford, American Commissioners.

30. Gen. Herrera elected President of Mexico by a vote of eleven states against five.

31. Gen. P. F. Smith arrived at Vera Cruz as governor. Gen. Kearney succeeded him in command of the city of Mexico.

It is stated that during the month of May, 32,877 passengers by sea had arrived at New York—of these 11,636 were from Germany, and 15,539 from Ireland. The arrivals for the previous month were 14,531.

The census of Texas has recently been taken; population 145,000.

Remarkable instances of longevity are recorded this month in Kentucky. A gentleman of Green county, in that state, has sent to the Louisville Journal for publication, the following list of old persons living in that county:—Stephen Riggs, 93; Thomas Parsons, 100; W. Thayer, 93; James Warner, 97; Mrs. Thurman, 101; Mrs. Embry, 94; John Mann, 96; Jas. Turner, 92; Peter Despain, 90. Their united ages are eight hundred and fifty-six years, and the average is a little more than ninety-five years. Three persons have recently died in that county whose ages were as follows: Mrs. Speaker, 113; John Miles, 93; Mr. Sands, 105.

JUNE.

1. Defeat of the Danes by the Germans.

3. Terrible gunpowder explosion in Vera Cruz; several buildings injured; twenty persons killed—mostly women.

4. The annexation of Lombardy to Piedmont declared at Milan.

5. A large meeting held in New York of the friends of Ireland, at which Mr. Havemeyer, the Mayor of New York, and Mr. Stryker, the Mayor of Brooklyn, presided. A *provisional committee*, or *directory* for Ireland was appointed, consisting of Robert Emmet, Horace Greeley, Charles O'Connor, and others. The contributions of money subsequently made to this committee from all parts of the United States have been very large.

7. The Whig National Convention assembled at Philadelphia—Gov. Morehead, of North Carolina, presiding.

Gen. Zachary Taylor was nominated as the Whig candidate for the Presidency, and Hon. Millard Fillmore, of New York, for the Vice Presidency.

News reached St. Louis that the celebrated Keokuk, chief of the Sac and Fox

Indians, had been murdered by one of his band. The murderer was caught and shot.

8. The royal troops in Sicily defeated.

10. \$549,000, in specie, exported from New York to Europe.

11. Surrender of Vicenza to the Austrians.

12. Great Chartist meeting between Leeds and Bradford.

Intelligence received of the murder of three English missionaries at St. Christoval, and their bodies eaten by the islanders.

Insurrection at Prague. The Princess of Windichgratz was shot by the insurgents. On the 18th the city was bombarded, and reduced to ruins.

14. Revolt at Hayti. Tumult at Berlin.

16. Gov. Bagby resigned his seat in the U. S. Senate, having been appointed Minister to Russia. Hon. Isaac Toucey, of Conn., appointed, at the same time, Attorney General in the place of Nathan Clifford.

The Mexican Government consented to advance \$30,000 and 2000 muskets, with munitions, for the relief of Yucatan.

17. The telegraph wire between New York and Jersey City, which had been laid down in the North river, in gutta percha, was maliciously taken up and cut.

18. The new Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Sumner, held his first ordination at Lambeth Palace.

The Austrians defeated by the Piedmontese near Rivoli. Venice garrisoned by 13,000 Neapolitans and Romans.

The insurrection spreading in Hungary. Carlowitz bombarded.

20. The will of Mrs. Mathewman, of Harrowgate, Eng., was proved, by which she bequeathed \$100,000 for promoting Church of England worship in Leeds. About the same time was proved in Philadelphia the will of Mrs. Elizabeth Stott, who died in that city at the advanced age of eighty-six, and bequeathed to several benevolent societies about \$10,000.

Paredes raised the standard of revolt in Mexico, assisted by Padre Jurauta.

The sixteen million loan negotiated at Washington at a premium of half a million of dollars.

Gen. Washington's Library, that is, the portion of it sold to Mr. Stevens, of Vermont, was purchased by a number of citizens of Boston, for presentation to the Athenæum. It contains, in all, about 450 bound volumes, and from 800 to 1000 pamphlets, unbound, nearly all of which belonged to the library of Washington. About 350 contain his autograph, and a few notes in his hand-writing.

Hon. Abbott Lawrence presented \$50,000 to the Harvard University.

21. 3000 houses destroyed by fire at Constantinople. The damage is estimated at \$100,000,000.

The Court of Inquiry in session, of which Gen. Towson was president; having adjourned from Mexico to Frederick, Md. Gen. Pillow was heard in his defence, and was subsequently acquitted.

22. Civil war in Paris. Barricades erected, and a terrible slaughter of the people; Gen. Cavaignac proclaimed dictator. See History, p. 346, &c.

Mr. Van Buren nominated for the Presidency by the Utica Convention.

24. U. S. ship Erie arrived at New York from Rio Janeiro. Com. Watson had in charge for the Government a treaty with Peru. He also brought home the remains of Com. A. J. Dallas.

26. The newly elected chambers opened at Brussels by King Leopold.

28. A new ministry or council formed at Paris—Gen. Cavaignac president.

29. The Government proposition on the sugar duties carried in the British House of Commons.

The reports of the promise of crops in the United States very flattering—especially wheat, corn, cotton, oats, and grass.

The Croton Aqueduct Bridge, over the Harlem river, completed. It is 1400 feet long, and rests on fifteen beautiful and lofty arches; eight of them are eighty feet span. It is probably not surpassed by any similar work in the world. The Croton aqueduct is forty miles long.

JULY.

1. General Taylor appointed to the command of the western division of the army. General Gaines to the command of the eastern division.

4. The President proclaimed the Treaty of Peace between the United States and Mexico.

The ceremony of laying the corner stone of the Washington Monument in the city of Washington, was conducted with great pomp and display. The President, the functionaries of the government, foreign ministers, members of Congress, and other distinguished persons were present. The military were commanded by Major-General Quitman, assisted by General Cadwalader and Colonel May. An oration, very eloquent and appropriate, was delivered on the occasion by Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, speaker of the House of Representatives. Grand Master B. B. French also made an address, and consecrated the stone with the usual masonic ceremonies.

5. The negroes in St. Croix revolted and compelled the Governor to proclaim their freedom. The whites then formed a provisional government, deposed the Governor, and attacked the negroes, and having captured three hundred of them, shot them immediately.

6. The President announced to Congress the termination of the war.

8. Plot discovered in Paris to assassinate Generals Cavaignac and Lamoricière.

10. The Canal Bank at Albany failed. The liabilities very large.

11. The Duke of Genoa, son of the King of Sardinia, elected King of Sicily. It is stated that he has not accepted the proffered dignity.

The Archduke John of Austria elected Vicar of Germany.

Messrs. Martin and Duffy arrested in Dublin, and Mr. Meagher in Limerick. The theatres in Paris have been granted 680,000 francs by the government. In 1847 they produced 5,500,000 francs in Paris, and 12,000,000 in the Provinces. They are opened on Sunday, and 10,000 families depend on them for support.

14. A portion of the levee fell in at New Orleans, by which a number of persons were drowned, and much property destroyed.

18. Paredes defeated by Bustamente at Guanajauto, and totally routed. The celebrated Padre Jurauta was captured and immediately shot. Paredes escaped.

The Indians in Yucatan repulsed at all points, and towns retaken by the whites.

The United States ship *Cumberland*, having on board Commodore Perry, the late commander of United States naval forces on the coast of Mexico, arrived at New York.

A meeting was held in New York city to receive President Roberts of Liberia, then in this country, having in charge the interests of this new Republic. It was stated that a gentleman in Mississippi had left \$100,000 by will to establish a college in Liberia. The population of Liberia is 18,000, of whom 3,500 are from the United States. Mr. Roberts is clothed with power to make amicable arrangements or treaties with the United States, England, and other powers. The town of Monrovia is said to be rapidly improving.

19. Marrast elected President of the National Assembly of France in place of M. Marie, appointed to the Ministry of Justice.

An heir to the throne of Brazil born.

21. The cities of Dublin and Waterford proclaimed by the Lord-Lieutenant to be under the coercion act.

The Sioux Indians surprised a party of Chippeways at Sandy Lake and killed seventy.

Lord John Russell proposed in Parliament the bill suspending the Habeas Corpus act in Ireland.

24. Dr. Solomon Andrews, of Perth Amboy, N. J., advertises that he has invented a car for the navigation of the atmosphere, which, when constructed, will be 100 feet long, 40 wide, and 32 high. In order to raise the means, say \$15,000, to construct it; valuable building lots are offered.

The gold mines of Buckingham county, Virginia, in successful operation—75 dollars worth raised and worked every day. The ore is said to be inexhaustible.

The day fixed on for insurrectionary movements in Cuba. The government becoming apprised of the intention, General Lopez, who was at the head of the conspiracy, made his escape to the United States.

Hayti is in a more quiet state. The President Soloque was in the interior with his troops. He is represented to be merciless and despotic in the extreme.

26. After several days severe fighting, the Piedmontese under Charles Albert were totally defeated by the Austrians under Radetsky, and retreated to Milan.

27. Major-General Butler, Commander-in-chief of the late army in Mexico, arrived at Washington.

29. Ireland in a state of great agitation. Rewards offered for the arrest of O'Brien, Meagher, Dillon, and Doheny, the leaders of the league, who were drilling the clubs and preparing for active resistance. Viscount Hardinge had arrived in Ireland to take command of the troops. Every available soldier dispatched from England to Ireland—50,000 supposed to be the force sent.

The Irish insurgents came in conflict with the police at Ballingarry, in the county of Tipperary. They were armed with muskets and pikes, and commanded by Smith O'Brien, but they were dispersed by the constabulary force, after a short fight; seven were killed.

The suspension bridge at Niagara Falls, noticed in our last number, is so far finished as to be passed over. Mr. Ellet, the architect, writes thus:—

“This morning I laid the last plank of my *foot-bridge* on the Canada side, and then drove over and back again in a buggy. Five hundred feet of the bridge was without railing on either side. My horse, though spirited, went along quietly, touched up occasionally with the whip, just to show him that he was in command, and give him courage.

“On returning I directed one of the drivers to bring on his team—a two-horse closed carriage, weighing altogether over a ton and a half. I took his place on the box, and drove over and back. The horses went quietly. The flooring is but eight feet wide, 220 feet high, 762 feet long, and without railing, over such a torrent as you never saw, and never will see anywhere else.”

31. A very serious riot occurred among the factory operatives at Pittsburgh—stones thrown, windows broken, and the sheriff's force dispersed. The difficulty, which originated from the ten hour system, has been settled by a proportionate reduction of wages.

The cholera on the decline in St. Petersburg, but is said to have appeared at Vienna. It seems steadily advancing over Europe. From its first appearance in St. Petersburg, 30th June to 21st July, there were 19,772 cases, of which 11,068 died. In all of Russia, from the 28th October, 1846, to the 5th July, 1848, there were 290,348 cases, and 116,658 died.

AUGUST.

1. The city of Vera Cruz was surrendered up by the Americans to the Mexicans. Salutes were exchanged. Gen. Smith embarked in the evening.

Major G. T. Pousin, the newly appointed minister from France, arrived at Washington. Some years since he was an officer of Engineers in the service of the U. S.

3. Women's Rights Convention assembled at Rochester. Mrs. Abigail Bush, President. Principal speakers, Miss Lucretia Mott, Mrs. Stanton, Mrs. Sandford, Mrs. Roberts, Mrs. Owens, and Fred. Douglass. A piece of poetry was read, written by Maria D. Chapman, of Philadelphia. The ladies demand the rights of property, suffrage, preaching, teaching, &c. &c. &c.

4. The Austrians have entered Italy. Charles Albert has evacuated Lombardy, and an armistice concluded between the Austrians and Piedmontese.

Sir H. Bulwer had arrived at Paris to negotiate on the part of England, should the joint mediation of England and France for the settlement of Italy be assented to by Austria.

The accounts from Newfoundland are of the gloomiest kind. Many of the inhabitants living in the greatest wretchedness.

5. Mr. Smith O'Brien arrested at the rail-road station at Tholes, Ireland, as he was about to proceed to Limerick to take refuge among his friends. He was taken to Dublin and lodged in Kilmainham jail. He is said to be cheerful, and his wife and friends have access to him. Numerous arrests have been made; among which are Messrs. Nolan, Bergen, and Dr. M. Carron, of the United States, and more recently, Meagher and other principal leaders.

10. Accounts received at Boston from the U. S. Exploring Expedition under Lieuts. Lynch and Dale, who reached the Dead Sea on the 23d April last. This was the first occasion on which a boat was ever navigated around the sea, and many of the stories once current have been proved to be fabulous. The explorers sounded the sea in all its-parts, to the depth of 600 fathoms, and found the bottom crusted with crystalized salt. The pestilential effects attributed to the waters turn out to be fabulous. Ducks were seen skimming over the surface, and partridges abounded along the shore. Nothing was seen of the ruined cities, which, according to old legends, were visible in clear weather beneath the water.

The Free soil convention at Buffalo nominated Mr. Van Buren for President, and Charles F. Adams, Esq. for Vice President.

12. Dreadful steamboat disaster on the Mississippi below Hamburg, Ill., by the explosion of the boiler; twenty-eight lives lost, principally deck passengers and crew.

13. The Mexican capital quiet, and the government vigorously administered by Herrera, who has proposed a reduction of tariff duties.

The State trials in Dublin are in progress, and the measures of the government, both in Ireland and England, very rigorous.

17. Disastrous fire in Albany, N. Y., in the most busy and populous part of the city. Several hundred buildings burned, a number of freight barges, and large amount of flour. The loss is estimated at over \$1,000,000. The burnt district covers an area of twenty-four acres.

23. Great riot in Cincinnati. The mob attempted to get at some Swiss discharged soldiers, confined in the jail for violence to a female. The officers fired from the windows and killed three, wounding several. The mob was dispersed.

22. The railroad train from Springfield to Hartford, twenty-six miles, ran the distance in thirty-three minutes.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTIETH CONGRESS.*

JANUARY, 1848.

3. A bill for clothing the volunteers was read the third time.

The bill to raise an additional military force (the ten regiment bill), reported by Gen. Cass, was considered and discussed in the Senate for several days. On the 6th Mr. Hale, of New Hampshire, addressed the Senate in opposition to the bill, insisting that the cause of the war was the extension of slavery.

10. The Senate passed the bill appropriating \$160,000 for the Brooklyn Navy Yard.

The ten regiment bill was further discussed by Mr. Reverdy Johnson, who came to the conclusion that the war was honorable and just on the part of the country, in consequence of the wrongs received from Mexico, but that the President had unconstitutionally and rashly brought it on.

12. The ten regiment bill was discussed by Mr. Clayton and Mr. Pearce. The points debated were the origin of the war—the disposition to annexation—the increased patronage of the Executive. The resolutions of Mr. Dickinson, of New York, were also taken up and explained by that gentleman. He regarded the extension of territory as the necessary tendency of the age.

Several bills were reported in the House; and among them a bill to regulate diplomatic intercourse, and the Senate bills providing clothing for volunteers and making appropriation for the dry dock at Brooklyn.

13. The message of the President, in answer to the call of the House for the instructions to Mr. Slidell, was received.

15. A resolution for printing a synopsis of the geological survey of Lake Superior was passed by the House.

The discussion on the ten regiment bill was continued in the Senate, for this and several succeeding days, by Messrs. Dix, Cass, Calhoun, Foote, Crittenden, and others. The plan of Mr. Foote, as to Mexico, was to annex it province by province, and admit it to the benefits of our territorial system.

21. In the Senate a message was received from the House, announcing the death of Mr. Hornbeck, member from Pennsylvania.

Several private bills were brought up in the House.

24. The Senate passed a resolution authorizing the erection of the Washington Monument on the public ground.

The President's reply to the call for Gen. Scott's correspondence relative to the forced contributions in Mexico, was received.

Mr. Hannegan's resolutions asserting the right to annex Mexico, were postponed.

25. Mr. Bagby presented a series of resolutions denying the power of Congress to abolish slavery in any of the States of the Union, asserting the right to acquire territory by conquest, and declaring that Congress could not interfere in the question of slavery in any new territory so acquired.

Mr. Vinton, from the Committee of Ways and Means, reported a bill making appropriations for the Military Academy during the year ending the 30th of

* Many of the prominent and important subjects before Congress are noticed in the Historical Register, or elucidated by the documents. A list of the principal acts passed will be found at the close of the documents—page 601.

June, 1849, and for pensions to revolutionary and other pensioners during the next fiscal year.

Mr. Dunn, from the Committee on Claims, reported a bill making provision for the widows and children of the soldiers who have died, or may die, in the service of their country, or who may die after being discharged, in consequence of wounds or disease contracted while in the service.

26. The army bill was taken up, when Mr. Dix addressed the Senate in reference to the best mode of conducting the war to a speedy and honorable close. He contended that the only means for securing peace was to be found in a formidable military demonstration, to be continued until Mexico sues for peace.

27. Mr. Benton presented a petition from Col. Fremont, asking the appointment of a committee by the Senate to examine certain persons now in Washington as to the liabilities incurred by him in California, for which he considers the Government responsible.

The House was engaged for several days in committee of the whole on the state of the Union, and in discussions of the President's message.

28. In the House, on motion of J. R. Ingersoll, the Senate bill supplementary to the act regulating appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court, was taken up, and amended by substituting the new bill from the Judiciary Committee, with other amendments offered by Mr. Thompson, of Iowa, and Mr. Hall, of New York; when it was passed.

29. The bill making appropriations for the Indian department was reported.

31. The bill relating to Jethro Wood's patent was passed, and the ten regiment bill further discussed.

FEBRUARY.

The proceedings, during this month of general interest, may be summed up as follows:

The ten regiment bill was discussed at intervals, and sometimes for several days, to the exclusion of all other matters, by Messrs. Greene, Mason, Rusk, and several other senators. Mr. Greene spoke in opposition to the character and objects of the war. He charged that it was contrary to the constitution to hold territory acquired by conquest, and that it would be inexpedient and dangerous to hold any part of Mexico.

A bill allowing further time for satisfying claims for bounty lands for revolutionary services, and a bill granting half pay to the widows and orphans of those who have died in the service of the United States, were passed.

A resolution was submitted by Mr. Webster, and agreed to, That the committee on the Judiciary inquire into the expediency of making further provision by law respecting imprisonment for debt, on process issuing from the courts of the United States.

A bill was passed to authorize alienations of Indian reservation lands.

In the House the bill for the relief of the heirs of Paul Jones was passed; and the loan bill was considered and passed, authorizing the President to issue Treasury notes to the amount of \$16,000,000.

On the 21st Mr. Benton announced to the Senate the illness of Mr. Adams.

On the 22d, the House adjourned out of respect to Mr. Adams, who was lying ill in the Speaker's room. Mr. Adams had fallen from his seat the previous day in a paralytic fit, as the main question was about to be put on a joint resolution of thanks to Generals Twiggs, Worth, Pillow, Quitman, Smith, and others. His death occurred on the 23d, and the whole business of legislation was suspended.

On the 23d, the President communicated to the Senate the Treaty negotiated by Mr. Trist with the Mexican government.

On the 29th, Mr. Allen's resolution in the Senate rescinding the 40th rule, and transacting all business with open doors, was laid on the table by a vote of 39 to 13.

MARCH.

4. The report of the Commissioners of Patents was received.

A bill was introduced by Mr. Pearce to exempt from duty all books, maps and charts, imported for the Congressional Library. He said that this act would be an exact transcript of a former law, omitted accidentally in the framing of the new tariff of 1846, and he hoped no objection would be raised against its passage. The bill was read three times and passed.

8. A memorial on the present state, production and trade of the Asiatic Islands of the Pacific, by A. H. Palmer, Esq., of New York.

9. In the Senate, a message was received from the House, announcing the passage of the bill making appropriations to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the service of the fiscal year ending the 30th of June, 1848, which was read a second and third time, and referred to the Committee on Finance.

In the House, the civil and diplomatic bill was reported by Mr. Vinton.

10. Several petitions were presented for the purchase of Mount Vernon by the government.

14. The loan bill from the House, and the bill to supply deficiencies in the appropriations of the fiscal year, were reported by Mr. Atherton in the Senate.

The nomination of Mr. Sevier as Commissioner to Mexico was confirmed, and his resignation as Senator was received the following day.

15. The bill for the relief of the heirs of Paul Jones passed the Senate.

The Ten Regiment Bill was under discussion.

In the House, the message of the President refusing information was again discussed.

The proceedings of Congress at this period possess little interest, except the passage of the Ten Regiment Bill, on the 17th, after having been further discussed by Messrs. Berrien, Webster and Calhoun. It passed the Senate by a vote of 29 to 19, but it did not become a law, as it was not acted on in the House.

20. The motion of Mr. Benton, to substitute a minister plenipotentiary to the papal dominions, instead of a charge, was negatived.

The Deficiency Bill then passed the Senate.

On the 21st, Mr. Hall presented petitions from Pennsylvania for dissolving the Union.

On the 28th, the Loan Bill passed the Senate, 34 to 2.

Many petitions, of various kinds, were presented on the 30th.

APRIL.

3. Message from the President to Congress, announcing the overthrow of the French monarchy.

4. The decease of Mr. Black, member from South Carolina, was announced.

5. Mr. Allen's resolutions, tendering the congratulations of the United States to the people of France, were discussed and unanimously adopted. The resolutions were afterwards passed by the House.

The Military Academy Bill was discussed in the House.

12. In the Senate the Military Academy Bill received from the House. The Foreign Mail Bill was passed by the House.

13. The bill repealing the pilot laws was taken up and discussed by Mr. Dix.

In the House, Mr. Mason, elected in the place of Mr. Adams, took his seat.

Mr. Tallmadge introduced a bill for the establishment of a branch mint in New York.

14. The President recommended Colt's repeating fire arms to the consideration of Congress.

The Cumberland Island Bill was passed.

17. The California Claims Bill was re-committed.

19. The question on the contested seat, between Messrs. Jackson and Monroe, of New York, coming up, a vacancy was declared. The House decided that neither was entitled to a seat.

24. Mr. Borland, the Senator elect from Arkansas, was sworn in.

28. In the Senate, Mr. Cass moved to take up the bill relating to the California claims, which prevailing, Mr. Calhoun replied to the remarks of Mr. Clayton.— He argued that Congress had the power to appoint commissioners under the constitution.

Mr. Reverdy Johnson followed in reply, and made an able speech, contending that under the constitution the appointment of commissioners rests with the President.

Mr. Badger spoke ably in support of the bill, and quoted many precedents of similar appointments made by Congress. The debate was continued by Messrs. Calhoun, Clayton, Cass, Jefferson Davis, Westcott, Underwood. The bill was then read a third time, and passed.

29. The President communicated to Congress the applications on behalf of Yucatan made by M. Justo Sierra, imploring aid from our government, and recommending the occupation of that country by a military force as the only means of affording adequate aid to the whites against the incursions of the Indians. The proposition was opposed by Mr. Calhoun as unusual and dangerous. Mr. Foote proceeded to make some explanation of the views of the President, when an adjournment took place on account of the death of Mr. Ashley, senator from Arkansas.

MAY.

3. In the Senate, the bill granting lands for the construction of a railroad connecting the Mississippi with the northern lakes at Chicago, was taken up and carried, 24 to 11.

In the House of Representatives. The select committee reported favorably on the railroad project of Mr. Whitney. Mr. Butler reported a bill to facilitate the recovery of fugitive slaves. The committee on the judiciary was also directed to report what legislation is necessary to protect colored citizens of non-slaveholding states.

4. In the Senate, Mr. Hannegan reported a bill to enable the President to take military possession of Yucatan.

The Ten Regiment bill was discussed in the House, and the Senate's amendment to the bill repealing the reduction of generals was concurred in, 81 to 66.

5. House of Representatives —The speaker presented a communication respecting the present of a Portrait of De Kalb, from his relatives, transmitted through Mr. Walsh, U. S. consul at Paris. Referred to the committee on the Library.

10. The Yucatan bill was still under discussion, and Gen. Cass made an able speech in favor of it. The House was occupied with discussing the Wisconsin bill, which passed the next day, and on the 12th sent to the senate.

17. The Yucatan bill having been further discussed on this and former days by Messrs. Calhoun, Miles, Dix and others; Mr. Hannegan rose, and announced that information had been received that a treaty had been concluded between

the whites and Indians of Yucatan, and he therefore moved to postpone the bill until further information had been received.

19. In the Senate, the bill making appropriations for the Military Academy at West Point, and the bill for the admission of Wisconsin into the Union, were passed.

20. The bill for the purchase of the Madison papers passed the House; it gives to Mrs. Madison \$25,000.

[Within the next three weeks the two great national conventions assembled at Baltimore and Philadelphia, and no business of any account was transacted by Congress during that time, because of the absence of the members.

After this interruption, the remainder of the session was principally consumed in the consideration of the appropriations for the public service, the civil and diplomatic bill, and territorial bills.

Of the latter we have taken special notice in the History, pages 323. 324.

We had prepared full reports of the very interesting debates on the territorial bills, as we have elsewhere stated, but postpone their insertion to the next number, with our summary of proceedings. We propose to add to them the opinions of eminent men out of Congress on the great questions involved in this discussion.

See page 601, for a list of the public acts of the thirtieth session]

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.

MR. BANCROFT TO THE MARQUIS OF CLANRICARDE.

90 EATON SQUARE, LONDON, *Jan. 11, 1848.*

My Lord:—The interview to which your lordship invited me, on Monday last, did not prepare me for the abrupt termination of our direct negotiation, as announced to me in your note, which I received late last night, and in which your lordship refuses the principle of reciprocity as the basis of a postal convention with the United States.

You decline the proposition that letters sent from one country should be treated, upon their arrival in the other, upon precisely the same terms as the inland letters of the latter country, and at the same time you insist on maintaining your own present high rates of postage on transit letters taken across the channel: that is to say, you decline a postal arrangement with the United States, unless, where British postage is low, you may raise it on American correspondence, and where British postage is very high, you may retain it as it is; and you further claim that British correspondence shall be carried from Boston to Jefferson City or Astoria, from one end of a continent to the other, at the same rates as peopled regions of Great Britain and Ireland.

This creates surprise. Still more am I surprised at your lordship's assigning as a reason for your refusal to agree to Mr. Johnson's proposition, that by acceding to it, nothing would be given for the advantage of the commercial world. Now, in point of fact, Mr. Johnson's proposition, as conveyed by me to your lordship, doubled the opportunities of correspondence, and reduces the rate of postage twenty per cent., or even thirty-three and one-third per cent. At the same time, it offers no insurmountable obstacle to the system of optional prepayment.

I will add that my desire to promote the comfort and interest of the commercial world, and the public of the two countries, is the leading, not to say the sole motive of my urging this negotiation to an immediate settlement. The interest of the American Post-office revenue I regard as subordinate.

You allude to the fact that Great Britain was the first to establish regular packets, as though that circumstance should give Great Britain an advantage in the negotiation. The British packet service between America and Great Britain is as old as the importance of British American colonies. It goes far back into the last century, and perhaps farther, and used to be a very heavy burthen on the British treasury. A few years ago you improved the service, and defrayed the expenses of it out of the United States correspondence, of which the United States permitted you to be the sole carriers. We now intend to be joint carriers. By the custom of nations, which forms international law—by the municipal law of England and of the United States, and by the constitution of the United States—the postal service is a function of Government. Between independent nations it can have no foundation but reciprocity.

You are quite right as to my views when you refer to my desire to establish a reduced and uniform rate of postage between America and Great Britain; coupled, you will keep in mind, with such a reduction of the transit rates of postage as should make England the channel of communication with the European continent. From Boston to St. Johns, from New York to the Canadian line, is as far as from Southampton to Ostend, or from Liverpool to Havre or Boulogne. I endeavored, with all the earnestness in my power, to persuade you to make England the great medium of communication between America and the European continent. I pointed out to you a double advantage to Great Britain from adopting such a course:

1. *To English Trade*—For if England is the regular channel through which American correspondence with the continent passes, more of it, and consequently more of American commerce, will remain in England, and,

2. *To the British Post-office Revenue*—For it is plain that to share in carrying the correspondence of America to the European continent would largely increase that revenue.

These arguments, and the proposition founded on them, on my part, of a reduced and uniform rate of postage, you rejected. I abandon, therefore, as I told you on Monday, all attempts to induce you to reduce your transit rates, and I leave the subject to your own laws and your own views of your own interest. In like manner I invite you to leave the American government to fix its own inland rates, according to the nature of its widely extended, thinly peopled country, with its roads new or unfinished, or primitive, and sometimes all but impassable—with its inland seas, which are several times wider than the British Channel—with its rivers, which are mail routes, and which, from source to mouth, are longer than the distance from Liverpool to Boston. We have fixed those inland rates on liberal terms, and are now preparing to reduce them. Let the reduction be left to the judgment and liberality of the American people. Do you also, on your part, establish your own inland rates, according to the system which perfect roads and a limited and everywhere densely peopled territory incline you to establish.

To the postal communication between England and America there are three parts: the inland British service, the inland American service, and the sea service. The service on the sea is identically the same for both parties; the respective inland service is widely different.

I repeat to your lordship this offer:

Let Great Britain establish its own inland rates and transit rates as it will, making them the same for correspondence by British or American packets. Let America establish its own inland rates and transit rates as it will, making

them the same for correspondence by American or British packets. Let there be one uniform sea rate of seven pence, or any sum you may prefer not much exceeding seven pence, with option of prepayment.

As you name the Chancellor of the Exchequer in your note, be good enough to acquaint him with this, my reply, which I intend as official. There is no need of referring this subject back again to the United States. My powers are full, and if you please, I shall myself be glad to receive and to consider your reply.

I remain, my lord, very respectfully,

Your obedient, humble servant,

GEORGE BANCROFT.

THE MARQUIS OF CLANRICARDE.

The refusal of the British government to establish a reduced and uniform rate of postage between the two countries has imposed upon the American government the necessity of adopting the following *Foreign Postal Arrangements*:

All letters or other mailable matter coming into the United States from foreign countries, or going out of the United States to other countries, are required to be sent through the Post-office at the place of departure or arrival.

The postages to be charged on all letters going out of the United States to or through the kingdom of Great Britain or its colonies into the United States, by any foreign packet-ship or other vessel, will be as follows—the postages on the out-going letters, or other mailable matter to be prepaid:—On each letter, not exceeding half an ounce in weight, conveyed between the two countries by a foreign packet, 24 cents; and for each additional half ounce, or fraction under, an additional postage of 24 cents; and if conveyed between the two countries by any foreign private ship or vessel, when weighing half an ounce or under, the postage will be 16 cents; and for each additional half ounce, or fraction under, an additional postage of 16 cents.

Newspapers will be chargeable with a postage of 4 cents each.

Each sheet of other printed matter will be rated as a newspaper.

RECOGNITION OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC—MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT AND DISPATCH OF MR. RUSH.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:

I communicate to Congress, for their information, a copy of a dispatch, with the accompanying documents, received at the Department of State, from the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States, at Paris, giving official information of the overthrow of the French monarchy, and the establishment, in its stead, of a “provisional government, based on republican principles.”

This great event occurred suddenly, and was accomplished almost without bloodshed. The world has seldom witnessed a more interesting or sublime spectacle than the peaceful rising of the French people, resolved to secure for themselves enlarged liberty, and to assert, in the majesty of their strength, the great truth, that, in this enlightened age, man is capable of governing himself.

The prompt recognition of the new government by the representative of the United States at the French court meets my full and unqualified approbation and he has been authorized, in a suitable manner, to make known this fact to the constituted authorities of the French Republic.

Called upon to act upon a sudden emergency, which could not have been anticipated by his instructions, he judged rightly of the feelings and sentiments of his government, and of his countrymen, when, in advance of the diplomatic

representatives of other countries, he was the first to recognize, so far as it was in his power, the free government established by the French people.

The policy of the United States has ever been that of non-intervention in the domestic affairs of other countries, leaving to each to establish the form of government of its own choice.

While this wise policy will be maintained towards France, now suddenly transformed from a monarchy into a republic, all our sympathies are naturally enlisted on the side of a great people who, imitating our example, have resolved to be free. That such sympathy should exist on the part of the people of the United States with the friends of free government in every part of the world, and especially in France, is not remarkable. We can never forget that France was our early friend in our eventful revolution, and generously aided us in shaking off a foreign yoke, and becoming a free and independent people.

We have enjoyed the blessings of our system of well regulated government for near three-fourths of a century, and can properly appreciate its value. Our ardent and sincere congratulations are extended to the patriotic people of France, upon their noble, and thus far successful, efforts to found for their future government liberal institutions similar to our own.

It is not doubted that, under the benign influence of free institutions, the enlightened statesmen of republican France will find it to be for her true interest and permanent glory to cultivate with the United States the most liberal principles of international intercourse and commercial reciprocity, whereby the happiness and prosperity of both nations will be promoted.

JAMES K. POLK.

WASHINGTON, *April 3, 1848.*

THE DISPATCH FROM THE AMERICAN MINISTER.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, }
PARIS, *March 4, 1848.*

SIR:—Scarcely had my dispatch of the 24th February been folded up, when events the most momentous quickly succeeded each other. Numerous barricades had risen up in the streets; civil war continued; the people were victorious; the palace of the Tuileries was carried; the king abdicated, and fled with all the royal family, and the monarchy was overthrown. All this happened in the course of the day—Thursday.

The confusion and tumult caused in the Chamber of Deputies by these events led to the hasty and violent close of its sitting on that day. All attempts to establish a regency, with the Count de Paris as successor to the throne, failed. His mother, the Duchess of Orleans, with the young prince himself, went to the Chamber, but soon had to make their escape. All order—all deliberation—had come to an end. The ministerial members were driven out by the people, who had entered the Chamber, many of them armed, and, with menacing gesticulations, usurping the seats. In the sequel, a portion of them, with some of the opposition members, hurried to the Hotel de Ville to form a provisional government, under voices to that effect, uttered and echoed at the close of the boisterous sitting.

At the Hotel de Ville, as a rallying point, a provisional government was formed on the evening of Thursday, the 24th, and proclaimed on the following morning. The proclamation declared that the provisional government desired a republic, subject to the ratification of the French people.

The persons composing the provisional government are—Messieurs Dupont (de l'Eure), Lamartine, Cremieux, Ledru Rollin, Garnier Pagés, Marie, and Arago.

The Secretaries of the government are—Messrs. Armand Marrast, Ferdinand Flocon, Louis Blanc, and M. Albert.

The first four members of the provisional government were of the Chamber

of Deputies, a body no longer existing any more than the Chamber of Peers; the whole fabric of the late government having been shattered to pieces.

Some accounts state that all the names comprising the provisional government were given out from the tribune of the Chamber of Deputies before its dissolution; but there is difficulty in coming at the precise fact, such was the consternation in the Chamber when it broke up.

The provisional government immediately announced, as formed by its own decree, a provisional cabinet, that the functions of administration might not stop.

I abstain, at this juncture, from presenting more of the names of the provisional cabinet than those of M. Dupont (de l'Eure), as president of the council, and M. de Lamartine, as minister of foreign affairs; these two posts being severed again, after having been united in M. Guizot, who, and all his associates in the late ministry, have fled.

Of a revolution so total and sudden I am not now to speak. The journals of the world are still teeming with it. Nor can I yet speak of the acts of the new government, except to say that they have been characterized, so far, by moderation and magnanimity, in the midst of triumphs of a nature to have intoxicated minds less pure and firm than happily are believed to be possessed by its leading members.

I pass to what, foremost of all at present, I am bound to report to you—namely, the part which, as representing the United States, I have taken under the new duties that encompassed me.

On Saturday, the 26th, I received an intimation, earnestly given, that my personal presence at the Hotel de Ville, to cheer and felicitate the provisional government, would be acceptable. The intimation was not officially sent, but I believed it to be true.

I asked a short interval for reflection.

Before the day was out, I imparted my determination to take the step.

Monday morning, the 28th, was the time appointed for it; and accordingly I repaired to the Hotel de Ville, the Secretary of Legation accompanying me.

To the provisional government, there assembled, I delivered the address, a copy of which is enclosed.

It was cordially received, and M. Arago, on the part of the members, replied to it.

He remarked that they heard without surprise, but with lively pleasure, what I said; France expected it from an ally to whom she now drew so close by the proclamation of the republic. He thanked me, in the name of the provisional government, for the wishes I expressed for the greatness and prosperity of France; and alluding to the words it had called up from General Washington's address in 1796, on receiving the French colors, he expressed a confidence that they would be not merely a desire, but a reality.

M. Dupont (de l'Eure), as President of the provisional government, then advanced, and, taking me by the hand, said: "The French people grasps that of the American nation."

Here the ceremony ended. In coming away, three of the members of the government conducted us out of the building; the guard presented arms, and cries went up of "*Vive la république des Etats Unis.*" Major Pous-sin, a French officer, who accompanied General Bernard to the United States, and who, from his attachment to our country, was naturalized there, also attended me.

On Sunday, the 27th, I received the note of that day's date from M. Lamartine, as provisional minister of foreign affairs, which announced to me, in official form, the existence of the new government. I answered it on Monday. Copies of the note and answer are enclosed.

The provisional government published my answer the morning after my reception. My address of Monday has also appeared in the newspapers—not, however, in its exact form. I had written it out, to guard against inaccuracies,

on an occasion so grave, and left the paper in the hands of the provisional government; a transcript of which you now have.

This succinct narrative will accurately apprise the President of what I have done. I shall anxiously await his judgment upon it all. The events were as new as momentous. They have transcended all expectation. In recognizing the new state of things as far as I could without your instructions, and in doing it promptly and solemnly, I had the deep conviction that I was stepping forth in aid of the great cause of order in France, and beyond France; and that I was acting in the spirit of my government and country, the interpreter of whose voice it fell upon me suddenly to become. If I erred, I must hope that the motives which swayed me will be my shield. The provisional government needed all the moral support attainable, after a revolutionary hurricane which shook society to its base, and left everything, at first, portentous and trembling. In such an exigency, hours, moments were important; and the United States are felt as a power in the world, under the blow that has been struck.

I am not unaware that the course I have pursued departs from diplomatic usage, and separates me, for the time being, from the European diplomatic corps, accredited, like myself, to the late government of France; all the members of which will probably await instructions before adopting any steps of recognition. Having acted under a sense of independent duty in the emergency, I am, however, not the less aware that the diplomatic corps represents countries in friendly relations with the United States; and that it will be as much my duty as inclination to go on maintaining that amicable footing with its members ever dictated by reciprocal good will among the representatives of friendly powers, whatever different forms of government they may represent.

I have the honor, &c.

RICHARD RUSH.

Hon. JAMES BUCHANAN, Secretary of State.

ADDRESS OF MR. RUSH TO THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE, AFTER THE OFFICIAL RECOGNITION BY THE UNITED STATES OF THE NEW REPUBLIC.

"MR. PRESIDENT AND MEMBERS OF THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC: I have the honor to deliver you the letter of the President of the United States, in which I am appointed Extraordinary Ambassador and Minister Plenipotentiary of our Republic, to the Republic of France. While I place these credentials in your hands, I am commissioned, at the same time, to express the sincere sympathy of the President in the welfare and success of France, and to communicate his earnest wish to carry on with zeal and sincerity the most friendly relations between the two Republics, whose dearest interests mutually bind them together. I am also empowered to declare to you that the President has expressed his entire approval of my act, in acknowledging the French Republic, at the moment when its existence was proclaimed to the world, in February, through the Provisional Government. This took place on the third day after its birth; it is now already in the third month of its existence. During this period, while the whole of Europe has been violently agitated, and France exposed to the severest trials and hindrances, the Provisional Government has succeeded in preserving the highest benefits of quiet on her own soil, and peace with foreign nations. History will record in its true glory, this enormous work.

"I am doubly fortunate in being able to make use of this opportunity to offer you again my expressions of sympathy and congratulation, since I do it with the concurrence of my government and my country. May I also be permitted to add my most ardent desire that, when the Republic shall pass from your

hands into those of the National Assembly, that great body may crown its labors by giving institutions to France which shall secure to her the greatest prosperity and the noblest renown."

M. Lamartine answered as follows, in the name of his associates.

"CITIZEN AMBASSADOR: The Provincial Government has appointed me its representative to receive from your hands the first act of the official acknowledgment of the French Republic. France was the first to recognize the independence of the Republic of the United States of America, when she was still young, weak and surrounded with hostile influences; but under the fructifying influence of the democratic principle, she has grown in half a century to the proportions of a mighty continent. As if by the ministry of Providence, the American Republic was reserved to be the first which has acknowledged the new Republic of France, and is thus the first witness of the certificate of birth of the French Democracy of Europe. Her signature, Citizen Minister, will bring luck to the Republic. Notwithstanding that in a crisis like the present, the overthrow of a Government and the creation of totally different institutions, great tumults and embarrassments are unavoidable, every thing gives us the assurance—and you may repeat it to your fellow citizens—that your wishes for the prosperity of France shall be fulfilled, and the Republic shall pass great and powerful from their weak hands, to grow more great and more powerful, in the hands of the French nation. We cherish this confidence from the fact, that the French people are now ripe for their institutions. That which existed fifty-five years ago, only in the heads of great spirits, has now become a part of the thoughts and the actions of the entire people. The Republic which our people desire at the present day, is the same which they have already established among themselves—a progressive Republic, with the maintenance of right, of property, of industry, of trade, of rectitude, of freedom and of the moral and religious sentiments of its citizens. This is a Republic, whose first call was that of generosity and brotherhood, which at once broke in twain the weapon of revenge and of political reaction, and instead of the fatal countersign of robbery and proscription, wrote upon its banners the abolition of the Death Penalty and the fraternization of the people. These principles will, as we trust, be accepted by the National Assembly, strengthened by the might of all armed citizens, and concentrated into a powerful Representative Unity of the Government. Thus will the French Republic become the proud and worthy sister of America.

"It can then be said of France and America as once was said of them by a man whose memory is dear to both lands (Lafayette)—they are the Republics of two worlds. As regards the sentiments which the French people thankfully and ardently cherish for the people and Government of the United States, I can give them utterance Citizen Minister, in few words—*Every Frenchman has for the Americans the heart of Lafayette!*"

MANIFESTO OF THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA—AND OFFICIAL DECLARATION.

(FROM THE WASHINGTON UNION.)

The following manifesto of the Emperor of all the Russias, with the official declaration accompanying it, is published in compliance with a request addressed by the Russian Minister to the Secretary of State :

We Nicolas the First, &c. &c. &c.

After the blessing of a long peace, the west of Europe finds itself suddenly given over to perturbations, which threaten with ruin and overthrow all legal powers and the whole social system.

Insurrections and anarchy, originating in France, have crossed the German frontier and spread in every direction, with an audacity which has gained new strength in proportion to the concessions of the governments: overflowing with the speed of a destructive torrent, they have reached our allies, the Empire of Austria and the kingdom of Prussia.

The revolutionary audacity, in its blind fury, menaces even Russia, whose destinies have been by the Almighty entrusted to our care.

A protecting Providence will not abandon us at this trying moment. True to the path followed by our ancestors, faithful to our orthodox religion, and having invoked the aid of the Omnipotent, we are ready to encounter our enemies, from whatever side they may present themselves. Prepared to expose our person to all dangers, and uniting ourselves to the extent of all our faculties to our holy Russia, we will defend with all our might, the honor of the Russian name, and the inviolability of the empire.

We are convinced that all the Russians, that every one of our faithful subjects will respond, with joy, to the call of their sovereign. For our faith, for our Czar and for our country! this ancient war-cry will again lead us on in the path of victory, and then with sentiments of humble gratitude, as now with feelings of holy hope, we will all proclaim with one voice—*Nobiscum Deus! Audita Populi, et vincimini: quia nobiscum Deus.*

Given at St. Petersburg, the 14th-26th March, 1848, in the 23d year of our reign.
NICOLAS.

Official explanations inserted in the Journal of St. Petersburg of the 18-30th March.

The Emperor's manifesto on the violent commotions which disturb western Europe, is before the world. All faithful Russians will have understood its full bearing. It is the vivid expression of all the noble sentiments that religion and patriotism could inspire. It is in that strain of overflowing feelings that our sovereigns usually address themselves to the Russian people in the trying moments of apprehension of danger. So far as Russia is concerned, the intentions of the imperial government will be perfectly appreciated; but it has so happened that in foreign countries the same intentions, and the manifestations of the imperial government, have been very often the object of false interpretation. To prevent the recurrence of any attempts of that kind, some timely explanations of the manifesto's political meaning have appeared necessary; they will present our views in their true light.

Any attempts to discover in the manifesto the intention of disturbing the peace of Europe, would tend to establish a supposition which the imperial government formally repudiates as contrary to its sincerest wishes. But with the hostile feelings avowed, and the direct provocations from abroad, against Russia, it was quite natural that the Emperor should make an appeal to the national feelings, and maintain the dignity of the empire. The fact is, that not only in France, where the Polish emigration is openly supported by the authorities, but in Hungary, in Prussia, and in other parts of Germany, clamorous and provoking vociferations have been raised against Russia. Corporations, representative bodies, and semi-official organs of the press have re-echoed them. They have imputed as a crime to the governments overthrown, and to the authorities changed by the insurrection, their former friendly relations with the Russian government.

Immediately after the proclamation of the French republic, we have been accused of aggressive intentions, without ascertaining how far it would suit our interests to pour out our blood for objects not directly connected with the interests of the empire. Our alliance has been repudiated with an unwarranted ostentation. Russia has been presented to the world as a gigantic fright; and to prevent all attempts of intervention on our side, we have been threatened, even before we could reasonably have come to any determination to interfere with the existing commotions. A dignified surprise is the real expression of our feelings, in

answer to these unprovoked manifestations. For, as far as our recollection goes, Russia has never, in our days, attacked the rights or the independence of Germany.

The whole world knows from what quarter came the invasion of 1812. History has already recorded the great efforts and sacrifices we have made, during this eventful period, to secure the liberties of Germany and the rights of our allies.

This statement of facts must be sufficient to quiet all apprehensions. Germany and France need not be uneasy. Russia has no more the intention to interfere with the changes that have already taken place than those that are contemplated in the forms of governments. Russia has no aggressive intentions; she is bent upon peace, for the blessings of peace are necessary for the development of her national prosperity. We will regard with composure the convulsions and the struggles of the western populations after an undefined social happiness. Let them choose freely the form of government best adapted to their notions. Russia will quietly observe all the experiments that will be tried. She will not envy the destinies of these countries if any good results from the present state of anarchy and subversion.

As for Russia herself, it is from the gradual march of time and the enlightened solicitude of her sovereigns that she will await the development of her social condition. But amidst all the imperfections and miseries almost unavoidably connected with the existence of societies and all forms of government, even the best, the stability of the existing form of government remains always the most indispensable condition; for without it no political power can exist and have any influence, no industry can improve, and no national prosperity can be founded on a safe basis. Russia will defend, to the utmost, that precious stability. She will not permit any foreign propagandism to create in her bosom seditious dissatisfaction, and will never tolerate that, under the pretence of reviving extinguished nationalities, any attempt should be made to detach from the empire any fraction of the whole that constitutes the Russian dominions.

If, in the progress of events, war becomes unavoidable; if hostilities should be the unhappy result of the numerous convulsions, of the many conflicting rights, and of all the antagonistic pretensions, Russia will carefully consult her national interest. Then, and not before, she will decide to what extent it might suit her to interfere in the difficulties existing between the governments and the nations. The Russian empire is, at all events, prepared not to lose sight of the obligations imposed by treaties, and rights of possession guaranteed by her. Russia is firmly determined not to allow the political and territorial equilibrium to be modified in any way that can conflict with her interests. She will await events, maintaining a strict and watchful neutrality. The Russian policy will consist in a scrupulous respect for the independence and the integrity of her neighbors, as long as these neighbors will take care to respect the integrity and independence of the Russian empire.

CONSTITUTION OF THE AUSTRIAN STATES.

I.—GENERAL DISPOSITION.

1. All the countries belonging to the empire of Austria form one constitutional indivisible monarchy.

2. The constitution belongs, and will be applicable, to the following countries of the empire of Austria, namely, the kingdoms of Bohemia, Galicia, Lodomeria (with Auschwite, Zator, and Bukowina), Illyria (consisting of the duchies of Carinthia, Carniola, and the territory of the coast), the kingdom of Dalmatia, the arch-duchy of Higher and Lower Austria, the duchies of Saltzburg, Styria,

the Higher and Lower Silesia, the Margraviat of Moravia, the Tyrol, including Voralberg.

3. The territorial division of the provinces will remain as it at present is, and cannot be changed but by law.

4. The inviolability of their nationality and of their language is granted to all races.

5. On the established principle of the Pragmatic Sanction of the 19th April, 1713, the crown is hereditary in the house of Hapsburg-Lorraine.

6. The heir of the throne is of full age on attaining the age of eighteen years.

7. In case of a minority, or an incapacity to govern in person, the regency will be formed by means of a special law.

II.—THE EMPEROR.

8. The person of the emperor is sacred and inviolable. He is not responsible for the acts of his government; but his ordinances, to be of force, must have the co-operation of a responsible minister.

9. The emperor will swear to the constitution at the openings of the first diet, and each new sovereign shall do the same immediately on his accession.

10. The executive power belongs to the emperor alone. He will exercise the legislative power in concert with the diet.

11. He nominates to all public offices; he decrees all dignities, orders, and titles of nobility. He exercises the command in chief of the forces by land and by sea.

12. He declares war and concludes peace and treaties with foreign governments. All the treaties with foreign states will require the final ratification of the diet.

13. To the emperor belongs the power of rewarding distinguished services. He has the right of pardon and of commuting punishment, but this right in respect of ministers who may be condemned is dependent upon the intervention of one of the two chambers of the diet.

14. The entire administration of justice is under the jurisdiction of the emperor, and the proceedings are in his name.

15. In the diet the emperor has the power of presenting laws. The sanction of all laws belongs to him alone.

16. He convokes annually the diet, and has the power of proroguing or dissolving it; in the latter case a new diet must be convoked within three months. In case of the death of the emperor the diet is to assemble within one month.

III.—OF THE CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS OF THE INHABITANTS OF THE STATE.

17. Full liberty of conscience, as also liberty of persons, are guaranteed to all citizens.

18. No person can be arrested otherwise than in accordance with legal forms, except in cases of being taken in the act of committing crime. Within twenty-four hours from the period of arrest, every person arrested must be interrogated as to the cause for his arrest, and brought up for trial. Domiciliary visits are prohibited, except in cases and under the forms prescribed by law.

19. Liberty of speech and of the press is guaranteed by the constitution. Censorship is completely abolished. The repression of abuses which may arise on these heads will be regulated by a law to be passed by the first diet.

20. The secrecy of letters is inviolable.

21. Strangers, who have not already acquired civil rights, are also to enjoy the liberties set out in paragraphs 17 to 20.

22. All citizens are to have the right of petition, and of forming civil associations. Special laws will regulate the mode of exercising these rights.

23. The authorities are not to have the power of opposing any obstacle to the liberty of emigration.

24. Every citizen may become a freeholder, may follow any branch of trade permitted by law, and may take any office or dignity.

25. The law is equal to every citizen. They will enjoy one and the same equal legal position; they will be subjected to the same obligations as regards military service and taxation; and no person can be deprived against his will of being judged by ordinary courts.

26. The laws in regard to the army are not altered until the promulgation of a special law.

27. The first diet will be occupied with projects of law, having for their aim the settling of the differences which in some parts of the monarchy still legally exist in regard to the civil and political rights of some professions, and the abolishing the obstacles which still oppose the acquisition of all sorts of freehold property.

28. Judges are not to be dismissed except by virtue of a judgment given by proper judicial authority. They cannot be reappointed to their seats, nor can they be removed from one place to another against their will, nor can they be placed on the retired list.

29. The laws are to be publicly and orally administered.

In regard to the criminal laws, the trial by jury is to be introduced, and its establishment will form the subject of a special law. †

30. No changes in the organization of the law courts can be introduced but by a law.

31. The free exercise of worship is assured to all Christian creeds legally acknowledged in the monarchy, as also to the Jewish persuasion.

IV.—THE MINISTRY.

32. The ministers are responsible for all acts and propositions done and made in the performance of their duties.

33. This responsibility, as also the determining the authority through which they can be accused or tried, will be regulated by a special law.

V — THE DIET.

34. The diet, which is to exercise the power of legislation in concert with the emperor, is to be divided into two chambers—a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The duration of the diet is fixed for five years, with an annual convocation.

35. The senate is to consist—First, of the princes of the royal house who have attained the age of twenty-four years. Secondly, of members nominated for life by the emperor, without attention to position or birth. Thirdly, of 150 members, to be elected by the principal landed proprietors from their own body, and for the full period of the diet.

36. The chamber of deputies is to be composed of 383 members. The election of all its members is to be based upon the population and the representation of all civic interest.

37. The election of the members of both chambers to the first diet will take place under a provisional electoral ordinance.

38. The definitive electoral law will be voted by the diet, as also the regulations referring to the pay to be allowed to the deputies of the second chamber.

39. Each chamber will elect its president and other official members; and to each chamber will belong the sole right of examining and deciding upon the validity of the respective elections.

40. The members of both chambers can only vote in person; and any pledge made to their constituents is not to hold good.

41. The sittings of the two chambers are to be public. An exception to this rule can only be made by a resolution of the chamber, which is to come to a

decision on this point at a secret sitting, on the demand of any ten of its members, or of the president.

42. No member of either chamber can be proceeded against at law, or arrested pending the duration of the diet, without the express consent of the chamber to which he belongs, the case of his being taken in the commission of any criminal act being alone an exception.

43. A member of either chamber who accepts any salaried office under government is subjected to a fresh election. The government cannot refuse the entry into the chambers of any citizen who has been elected a member.

44. The chambers can only assemble on the convocation of the emperor, and their dissolution or prorogation once pronounced, they cannot further occupy themselves on any matter.

VI.—ATTRIBUTIONS OF THE DIET.

45. All laws require the adhesion of the two chambers, and the sanction of the emperor.

46. The first diet assembled, and the diet which shall immediately succeed each new accession to the throne, will fix the civil list of the emperor for the duration of his reign. The portions and allowances to members of the imperial family will be submitted to the resolutions of the diet as occasion may require.

47. The annual authority for keeping up a standing army—the authority for raising taxes and tithes—the carrying out of state loans—the alienation of state property—the examination and passing of the annual budget of receipts and payments—cannot take place but by the laws. The projects of law on these heads must be presented first in the chamber of deputies.

48. Both chambers can propose projects of law, or upon grounds stated invite the government to present a project of law. They can accept petitions and deliberate upon them; nevertheless, these petitions cannot be in person delivered by private parties or by corporations—they must be presented by a member of the chamber.

49. To enable the chamber to pass a resolution binding in law, there must be present in the senate at least thirty members, and in the chamber of deputies at least sixty.

50. Any projects of law having for their object the completion, the extension, or the modification of the dispositions of the constitution, must include in each of the two chambers the votes of two-thirds of the members present.

51. In all other projects of law the absolute majority of votes is sufficient.

52. The government is to be represented in the two chambers by responsible ministers, or by commissaries of the government, appointed expressly by it to the chambers. Both have casting votes, but only if they are members of the chambers.

53. Special regulations, to be determined upon by each chamber, will fix the order of affairs, and up to the period of this being done, provisional regulations for each of the two chambers will be published by the government.

VII.—PROVINCIAL STATES.

54. In the different countries there will be provincial states for defending the interests of the provinces. Such as exist at present will retain their organization and attributions, in all cases where the constitution introduces no change.

55. One of the first duties of the diet will be the examination of the alterations proposed by the provincial states to be made to their existing constitution, and to deliberate on the proposition relative to the manner of affording compensation for the charges which weigh upon property, and which are declared redeemable.

56. The legislature will determine upon special municipal dispositions, for the protection of the private interests of the circles and districts of each province.

57. Communal constitutions will be based upon the principle, that all the interests of the commune and its members may be represented by them.

58. The national guard is to be organized throughout the whole monarchy, under a special law; it will, nevertheless, be subordinate to the authorities and to the civil tribunals.

59. The national guard and every public officer will swear fidelity to the emperor and the constitution. The oath of the army to the constitution will be taken in the oath to the colors.

Given in our capital, and at our residence of Vienna, the 25th of April, in the year 1848, and in the 14th year of our reign.

(Signed)

FERDINAND.

FIGUELMONT, *Minister of Foreign Affairs, and President pro tem.*

PILLERSDORFF, *Minister of the Interior.*

KRAUS, *Minister of Finance.*

SOMMARUGA, *Minister of Public Instruction.*

ZANINI, *Minister of War.*

FUNDAMENTAL LAW FOR THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

The proposed fundamental law for the constitution of the German empire, is divided into five articles, the third of which is again subdivided into three divisions.

The first article refers to the bases of the empire. The countries hitherto appertaining to the confederation, the Prussian provinces since incorporated, and the Duchy of Schleswig, to constitute the empire—the independence of each state is maintained, unless where the unity of Germany demands otherwise.

The second article enumerates the departments coming exclusively under imperial jurisdiction, as follows:—International representation of Germany, and its states in foreign countries, embracing the right of treaties and diplomatic relations; the right of declaring peace and war; the army, fortresses, navy, customs, postal department, canals, railways, patents, currency, weights, measures, and all revenues proceeding from customs, post-office, and other taxes, and to impose additional taxation when necessary.

The third article decrees the constitution, which is centered in the Supreme Chief, or Emperor, and the Imperial Diet. This article is divided into classes A, B, and C. A defines the dignity of the Supreme Chief to be hereditary, and his residence to be at Frankfort on the Maine; his civil list to be regulated conjointly with the Imperial Diet. The emperor to exercise the executive power in all imperial affairs; to appoint functionaries and officers of the army and navy, also the superior officers of the Landwehr; and to regulate the divisions of the army. He is also to have the power of convoking an extraordinary assembly of the diet; to adjourn, close, and dissolve it. To share with the imperial diet the right of proposing and approving of laws. To appoint and accredit envoys and consuls; to conclude treaties with foreign, and superintend those between the German States. The emperor to be inviolable and irresponsible, but all ordinances emanating from him to bear the signature of at least one of the ministers. Class B defines the composition of the diet; the Upper Chamber to consist of 200 members, and to embrace the reigning princes or their substitutes; a delegate from each free town; and councilors elected by the different

states, according to the forms prescribed. The Lower Chamber to consist of deputies of the people, elected for a period of six years—one-third to be renewed every two years. One deputy to be returned for every 100,000 souls; those states, however, the population of which is under 100,000, will return a deputy; and for any excess above 50,000 more, two deputies. The election to be made by the people. Every independent citizen, who is of age, with the exception of those under condemnation for crime, are eligible, and all citizens fulfilling the necessary conditions, who have accomplished their thirtieth year, are eligible—no matter to what state of Germany they belong. The councilors of the empire and the members of the lower chamber to receive salaries, and to have their traveling expenses paid by the imperial treasury. The consent of the chambers requisite to make any act of the diet law. Budget first to pass through the lower chamber, the upper chamber to have the power of rejecting it *in toto*, but not any separate article of it. The presence of one-third at least of the members, and an absolute majority of votes, necessary to pass any resolution in either chamber. The diet to meet annually at Frankfort, not to be adjourned for more than six weeks. New elections to take place fifteen days after the dissolution of any diet, or otherwise the former diet to reassemble three months after dissolution. Sittings of both chambers to be public. Members not to be arrested whilst attending the sittings, and not to be responsible for words spoken thereat. Ministers of the empire may be present at debates, and may claim to be heard if they wish, but not to vote, unless they are members of the chamber. Class C refers to the Court of Judicature, which is to consist of twenty-one members, who are to choose their own president and vice-president. Judges to accept of no other office, and not to be members of either chamber. This court to sit at Nuremberg, and the sittings to be public. Its jurisdiction to embrace all legal and political contentions between the different states, or between reigning princes, save in some specified cases; all disputes on the order of succession; complaints, by individuals, against reigning princes, or German states; disputes between the government of a state and the diet, on the interpretation placed upon the constitution; complaints in the fiscal department; cases where justice has been refused, or impediments thrown in its way; accusations against the ministers of the empire, or the ministers of particular states, by one or both chambers, as also against the ministry by the diet of different states, &c. &c.

The fourth article treats of the fundamental rights of the people, which are summed up in the following list:—The independence of the tribunals, the permanent appointment of judges, unless in virtue of a sentence, oral and public debates in the courts of justice, with trial by jury in all criminal and political offences. Equality of all classes as regards the charges of the state and of the communes, and eligibility to office. The establishment of a national guard. The free right of assembling, under reserve of a law against an abuse of the same. The unlimited right of petition, both as regards private individuals and corporations. The freedom of the press, free from all censorship, privileges, and caution money. The inviolability of the secrecy of letters. The guarantee against arbitrary arrests and domiciliary visits. The right of emigration. The right of selecting a profession, and to study at home as well as abroad. Religious liberty and freedom of conscience in public and private worship.

The fifth article guarantees the fundamental law of the empire by which the emperor takes before the diet an oath on his accession, to maintain the fundamental law; the ministry and other functionaries, as well as the army, to take an oath to the constitution of the state and the fundamental law; to change the latter, the consent of the diet and emperor is necessary; in each chamber the presence of at least three-fourths of the members is required, and a majority of three-quarters of those assembled. All former resolutions of the German diet, laws and treaties between the different states annulled.

The councilors of the empire are divided as follows, amongst the different

states:—Austria, 24; Prussia, 24; Bavaria, 12; Saxony, Hanover, Wurtemberg and Baden, each 8; Electorate of Hesse, Grand Duchy of Hesse, Schleswig-Holstein and Mecklenbourg-Schwerin, each 6; Luxembourg, Brunswick, Nassau, Saxe-Weimer and Oldenbourg, each 2; Mecklenbourg-Strëlitz, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernbourg, Schwarzbourg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzbourg-Sonderhausen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Waldeck, Reuss, elder branch, Reuss, younger branch, Lippe-Schaumbourg, Lippe, Hesse-Hombourg, Leichtensteine, Lauenbourg, Lubeck, Francfort, Bremen, Homburg, each 1. Total 161.

THE CHARTIST PETITION.

To the Hon. the Commons of Great Britain and Ireland, in Parliament assembled.

We, the undersigned inhabitants of the British Isles, and subjects of the British Crown, thus avail ourselves of the constitutional privilege of submitting the consideration of our political rights and wrongs to your honorable house, in the hope that they will receive from you that degree of attention which the importance of the one, and the oppressiveness of the other, demand from the guardians of the civil, social, and religious rights of the people.

Your petitioners declare, that the great end of all governmental institutions should be the protection of life, the security of property, the promotion of education and morality, and the diffusion of happiness among all classes.

That your petitioners consider the only legitimate basis of an equitable government is the expression of the mind of the whole male adult population, through the untrammelled agency of the franchise.

That your petitioners regard the representation in Parliament of every man of sound mind as a right compatible with, and sustained by, the laws of nature and of God, and that man's privation by his fellow-creatures of such a right, is an act which, if tolerated, evidences the existence of tyranny and injustice upon the one hand, and servility and degradation upon the other.

That your petitioners regard the Reform Bill as unjust, as it requires the right of citizenship to one-seventh of the male adult community, and stamps the other six-sevenths with the stigma of political inferiority.

That the system which your petitioners arraign before the judgment of your honorable house, renders seven men subservient to the will, caprice, and dominance of one; that it not only establishes the ascendancy of a small minority of the empire, but it invests a minority of the small enfranchised fraction with the power of returning a majority of your honorable house.

That your petitioners have never yet heard a valid reason urged for maintaining the present representative system, and that the arguments pleaded against the admission of the people to the immunities which the social contract should guarantee, are based upon class selfishness, prejudices, and contracted views of humanity.

That your petitioners hold the elective franchise not to be a trust, as has been absurdly represented, but a right inherent in every man for the preservation of his person, liberty, and property, which is to be exercised to the best of the possessor's judgment, without let or hinderance from his neighbor.

That your petitioners, believing the principle of universal suffrage to be based upon those eternal rights of man which, although kept in abeyance, can be neither alienated nor destroyed, appeal to your honorable house to make such organic reforms in our representative system as will make that principle the foundation upon which shall stand the Commons House of Parliament of Great Britain.

That your petitioners, in order that the elector may possess perfect security in the exercise of his franchise, pray that the voting at elections for members of Parliament be taken by ballot. Your petitioners, aware of the great, coercive, and corrupted power possessed by wealth and station over the poor elector, see no hope of securing purity of election and genuineness of representation, but in throwing the protective mantle of the ballot over the electoral body.

That your petitioners regard the present inequality of representation to be opposed to common sense, and inimical to a genuine representation of the people. They therefore appeal to your honorable house to remedy this defect in the legislative machinery, by the division of the country into equal electoral districts, assigning to each district one representative.

That your petitioners hold the legislature, equally with the executive, to be the servants of the people, and consequently entitled to remuneration at the public expense; and, believing that the House of Commons should be the minister and not the master of the people, call upon you to establish their just relative positions by fixing an equitable salary for the service of its members.

That your petitioners consider septennial Parliaments unjust, as they prevent, for six years out of seven, those who are annually arriving at maturity from exercising the right of suffrage. Your petitioners also consider that seven years is too long a term for the existence of a Parliament; a period that affords an opportunity to venal and time-serving men to promote their selfish interests at the expense of those whose welfare should be the ultimate aim of all their labors. Your petitioners, therefore, entreat your honorable house to create between the representative and the represented that salutary responsibility indispensable to good government, by the restoration of the ancient wholesome practice of Annual Parliaments.

That your petitioners complain that a seat in the Commons House of Parliament should be contingent upon the possession of property of any description, as they have yet to learn that legislative talent is the exclusive prerogative of any order of men; and, therefore, pray for the abolition of what is termed the "property qualification."

That your petitioners respectfully direct your attention to the document entitled "The People's Charter," which embodies the principles and details for securing the full and equitable representation of the male adult population, which document they earnestly pray your honorable house to forthwith enact as the law of the realm.

Should the members of your honorable house entertain any doubts as to the justice of our demands, your petitioners humbly entreat to be heard at the bar of your honorable house by counsel or agents in support of those claims.

And your petitioners, &c.

PIUS IX. TO THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

The Paris paper *La Siècle* has published the following copy of the letter which was written by the Pope to the Emperor of Austria on the breaking out of hostilities in Lombardy:

To the Emperor of Austria:

It has been the constant practice of the Holy See to be the herald of the words of peace in the midst of the wars which have watered the soil of Christian countries with blood; and in an address of the 29th of April, in proclaiming that it was repugnant to our paternal heart to declare war, we expressly avowed our earnest desire to contribute to peace. Do not allow it, then, to offend your majesty, if we make an appeal to your piety and religion, exhorting you with

paternal affection to withdraw your armies from a war which, without reconquering to your empire the minds of the Lombards and Venetians, brings in its train an unhappy mass of evils—evils that you yourself must certainly deplore. Let not the generous German nation take offence that we invited it to lay aside its feelings of hatred, and to convert into useful relations of friendly neighborhood a rule which would not be either noble or happy, as it could only be maintained by the sword.

We entertain, then, confidence that a nation so generously proud of its own nationality, will not make it a point of honor to attempt the conquest of the Italian nation by the bloody path that alone can lead to it, but that it will rather deem itself interested in recognizing it for a sister; both are daughters, both dear to us, each consenting to occupy its own natural territory, where they will lead a life honorable and blessed of the Lord.

We pray the Dispenser of all Knowledge, and the Author of all Good, to inspire your majesty with wise councils, while from the bottom of our heart we give your majesty, her majesty the empress, and the imperial family, our benediction.

PIUS PAPA IX.

HEADQUARTERS, ARMY OF MEXICO.

MEXICO, May 17, 1848.

ORDERS No. 95.

I.—Before a Military Commission, convened at the National Palace, City of Mexico, by virtue of orders No. 55, of April 9, 1848, and of which Col. M. V. Thompson, 3d Regiment Kentucky Volunteers, is President, were tried:

First. Lieutenant Isaac Hare, 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers.

Charge 1st—"Murder." *Specification*—In this, that the said Lieutenant Isaac Hare, of the 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers, did, on the 5th of April, in the year of Christ 1848, in the city of Mexico, commit murder upon Manuel Zorriza, a citizen of Mexico, by shooting him in the head.

Charge 2d—"Burglary." *Specification*—In this, that the said Lieutenant Isaac Hare, of the 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers, did, on the 5th day of April, in the year of Christ, 1848, forcibly, and with a felonious intent, break into and enter a house in the city of Mexico, situate on the street de la Palma, and numbered five.

To all which the accused pleaded "Not Guilty."

Sentence—The Commission, after mature deliberation on the evidence adduced, found the accused *guilty* as charged, and sentence him, Lieutenant Isaac Hare, of the 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers, to be hanged by the neck until he is dead, dead, dead; two thirds of the members of the court concurring therein.

[Here follow similar charges and sentences against Lieut. B. F. Dutton, of the 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers; Lieut. B. P. Tilden, of the 2d Regiment Infantry; John Laverty; Sergeant B. F. Wragg; Sergeant Stewart; and Private John Wall.]

II.—The Major-General Commanding approves the proceedings, findings, and sentences of the Military Commission in the foregoing cases.

Lieuts. Isaac Hare and B. F. Dutton, 2d Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers, and B. P. Tilden, 2d Regiment Infantry, and John Laverty, will be executed on the 25th instant, between the hours of 8 and 11 o'clock, A.M., under the direction of the Military and Civil Governor of the City of Mexico.

Upon the recommendation of the Court, the sentences in the cases of Sergeants B. F. Wragg and Stewart and Private John Wall, of the 7th Infantry, are respectively remitted. They will be kept in close confinement until the

close of the war, when they will each be dishonorably discharged from the service.

Upon the like recommendation of the Court, no further proceedings will be taken against the prisoners Jesse Armstrong and J. A. Hollister, who appeared as witnesses for the prosecution. They will be kept in close confinement until the close of the war, and then set at liberty.

III.—The Military Commission, of which Col. M. V. Thompson, 3d Regiment Kentucky Volunteers, is President, is hereby dissolved.

By order of Major-General Butler.

L. THOMAS, Asst. Adjt. General.

THE MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT

Declining to communicate all the Information in the possession of the Government relative to the return of Santa Anna, the Instructions to Mr. Slidell, &c.

To the House of Representatives of the United States :

I have carefully considered the resolution of the House of Representatives of the 4th instant, requesting the President to communicate to that House "any instructions which may have been given to any of the officers of the army or navy of the United States, or other persons, in regard to the return of President General Lopez de Santa Anna, or any other Mexican, to the republic of Mexico, prior or subsequent to the order of the President or Secretary of War, issued in January, 1846, for the march of the army from the Nueces river across 'the stupendous deserts' which intervene to the Rio Grande; that the date of all such instructions, orders and correspondence be set forth, together with the instructions and orders issued to Mr. Slidell, at any time prior or subsequent to his departure for Mexico as minister plenipotentiary of the United States to that republic," and requesting the President also to "communicate all the orders and correspondence of the government in relation to the return of Gen. Paredes to Mexico."

I transmit, herewith, reports from the Secretary of State, the Secretary of War, and the Secretary of the Navy, with the documents accompanying the same, which contain all the information in the possession of the Executive which it is deemed compatible with the public interests to communicate.

For further information relating to the return of Santa Anna to Mexico I refer you to my annual message of December 8, 1846. The facts and considerations stated in that message induced the order of the Secretary of the Navy to the commander of our squadron in the Gulf of Mexico—a copy of which is herewith communicated. This order was issued simultaneously with the order to blockade the coasts of Mexico, both bearing date the 13th of May, 1846, the day on which the existence of the war with Mexico was recognized by Congress. It was issued solely upon the views of policy presented in that message, and without any understanding on the subject, direct or indirect, with Santa Anna or any other person.

General Paredes evaded the vigilance of our combined forces by land and sea, and made his way back to Mexico from the exile into which he had been driven, landing at Vera Cruz, after that city and the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa were in our military occupation, as will appear from the accompanying reports and documents.

The resolution calls for "the instructions and orders issued by Mr. Slidell at any time prior or subsequent to his departure for Mexico as Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to that republic." The customary and usual reservation contained in calls of either house of Congress upon the Executive for information relating to our intercourse with foreign nations has been omitted in the

resolution before me. The call of the House is unconditional. It is, that the information requested be communicated, and thereby be made public, whether, in the opinion of the Executive, who is charged by the constitution with the duty of conducting negotiations with foreign powers, such information, when disclosed, would be prejudicial to the public interests, or not. It has been a subject of serious deliberation with me, whether I could, consistently with my constitutional duty, and my sense of the public interests involved and to be affected by it, violate an important principle always heretofore held sacred by my predecessors, as I should do by compliance with the request of the House.

President Washington, in a message to the House of Representatives, of the 30th of March, 1796, declined to comply with a request contained in a resolution of that body, to lay before them "a copy of the instructions to the minister of the United States who negotiated the treaty with the King of Great Britain," "together with the correspondence and other documents relative to the said treaty, excepting such of the said papers as any existing negotiations may render improper to be disclosed." In assigning his reasons for declining to comply with the call, he declared that "the nature of foreign negotiations requires caution, and their success must often depend on secrecy; and even when brought to a conclusion, a full disclosure of all the measures, demands, and eventual concessions, which may have been proposed or contemplated, would have been extremely impolitic; for this might have a pernicious influence on future negotiations, or produce immediate inconveniences, perhaps danger and mischief, in relation to other powers. The necessity of such caution and secrecy was one cogent reason for vesting the power of making treaties in the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, the principle on which that body was formed confining it to a small number of members."

To admit, then, a right in the House of Representatives to demand, and to have, as a matter of course, all the papers respecting a negotiation with a foreign power, would be to establish a dangerous precedent." In that case, the instructions and documents called for related to a treaty which had been concluded and ratified by the President and Senate, and the negotiations in relation to it had been terminated. There was an express reservation, too, "excepting" from the call all such papers as related to "any existing negotiations" which it might be improper to disclose. In that case, President Washington deemed it to be a violation of an important principle, the establishment of a "dangerous precedent," and prejudicial to the public interests, to comply with the call of the House.

Without deeming it to be necessary, on the present occasion, to examine or decide upon the other reasons assigned by him for his refusal to communicate the information requested by the House, the one which is herein recited is, in my judgment, conclusive in the case under consideration.

Indeed, the objections to complying with the request of the House, contained in the resolution before me, are much stronger than those which existed in the case of the resolution in 1796. This resolution calls for the "instructions and orders" to the minister of the United States to Mexico, which relate to negotiations which have not been terminated, and which may be resumed. The information called for respects negotiations which the United States offered to open with Mexico immediately preceding the commencement of the existing war. The instructions given to the minister of the United States relate to the differences between the two countries, out of which the war grew, and the terms of adjustment which we were prepared to offer to Mexico, in our anxiety to prevent the war. These differences still remain unsettled; and to comply with the call of the House would be to make public, through that channel, and to communicate to Mexico, now a public enemy engaged in war, information which could not fail to produce serious embarrassment in any future negotiation between the two countries.

I have heretofore communicated to Congress all the correspondence of the minister of the United States to Mexico, which, in the existing state of our relations with that republic, can, in my judgment, be at this time communicated, without serious injury to the public interest.

Entertaining this conviction, and with a sincere desire to furnish any information which may be in the possession of the Executive Department, and which either house of Congress may at any time request, I regard it to be my constitutional right, and my solemn duty, under the circumstances of this case, to decline a compliance with the request of the House contained in their resolution.

JAMES K. POLK.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 12, 1848.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

WASHINGTON, February 22, 1848.

To the Senate of the United States:

I lay before the Senate, for their consideration and advice as to its ratification, a treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, signed at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the second day of February, 1848, by N. P. Trist, on the part of the United States, and by plenipotentiaries appointed for that purpose on the part of the Mexican Government.

I deem it to be my duty to state that the recall of Mr. Trist as Commissioner of the United States, of which Congress was informed in my annual message, was dictated by a belief that his continued presence with the army could be productive of no good, but might do much harm by encouraging the delusive hopes and false impressions of the Mexicans; and that his recall would satisfy Mexico that the United States had no terms of peace more favorable to offer. Directions were given that any propositions for peace which Mexico might make should be received and transmitted by the commanding general of our forces to the United States.

It was not expected that Mr. Trist would remain in Mexico, or continue in the exercise of the functions of the office of commissioner, after he received his letter of recall. He has, however, done so; and the plenipotentiaries of the Government of Mexico, with a knowledge of the fact, have concluded with him this treaty. I have examined it with a full sense of the extraneous circumstances attending its conclusion and signature, which might be objected to; but, conforming as it does substantially, on the main questions of boundary and indemnity, to the terms which our commissioner, when he left the United States in April last, was authorized to offer, and animated as I am by the spirit which has governed all my official conduct towards Mexico, I have felt it to be my duty to submit it to the Senate for their consideration with a view to its ratification.

To the tenth article of the treaty there are serious objections; and no instructions given to Mr. Trist contemplated or authorized its insertion. The public lands within the limits of Texas belong to that State; and this Government has no power to dispose of them, or to change the conditions of grants already made. All valid titles to land within the other Territories ceded to the United States will remain unaffected by the change of sovereignty; and I therefore submit that this article should not be ratified as a part of the treaty.

There may be reason to apprehend that the ratification of the "additional and secret article" might unreasonably delay and embarrass the final action on the treaty by Mexico. I therefore submit whether that article should not be rejected by the Senate.

If the treaty shall be ratified as proposed to be amended, the cessions of territory made by it to the United States as indemnity, the provision for the satisfaction of the claims of our injured citizens, and the permanent establishment of the boundary of one of the States of the Union, are objects gained of great national importance; while the magnanimous forbearance exhibited towards Mexico, it is hoped, may ensure a lasting peace and good neighborhood between the two countries.

I communicate herewith a copy of the instructions given to Mr. Slidell in November, 1845, as envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Mexico; a copy of the instructions given to Mr. Trist in April last; and such of the correspondence of the latter with the Department of State, not heretofore communicated to Congress, as will enable the Senate to understand the action which has been had with a view to the adjustment of our difficulties with Mexico.

JAMES K. POLK.

The message was read.

The treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic, concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the second day of February, in the year eighteen hundred and forty-eight, which accompanied the foregoing message, was read the first time.

On motion by Mr. Sevier, the treaty, message, and accompanying documents were referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations.

MR. BUCHANAN TO MR. SLIDELL.

(Communicated with the preceding message.)

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 10, 1845.

SIR:—I transmit herewith, copies of a dispatch addressed by me under date the 17th September, 1845, to John Black, Esq., Consul of the United States at the city of Mexico, of a note written by the Consul to the Mexican Minister for Foreign Affairs, dated October 13, 1845, and of the answer of that minister, under date October 15, 1845.

From these papers, you will perceive that the Mexican government have accepted the overture of the President, for settling all the questions in dispute between the two republics, by negotiation, and that consequently the contingency has occurred, in which your acceptance of the trust tendered you by the President is to take effect. You will, therefore, repair without delay to your post, and present yourself to the Mexican government, as the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States.

In the present crisis of the relations between the two countries, the office for which you have been selected is one of great importance. To counteract the influence of foreign powers, exerted against the interests of the United States in Mexico, and to restore those ancient relations of peace and good will which formerly existed between the governments and people of the sister republics, will be the principal objects of your mission. The wretched condition of the internal affairs of Mexico, and the misunderstanding that exists between her government and the ministers of France and England, seem to render the present a propitious moment for the accomplishment of these objects. From your perfect knowledge of the language of the country, your well known firmness and ability, and your taste and talent for society, the President hopes that you will accomplish much in your intercourse with the Mexican authorities and people. The ready and decided stand which the people of the United States

and their government took and maintained, in favor of the independence of the Spanish American republics on this continent, secured their gratitude and good will. Unfortunate events have since estranged from us the sympathies of the Mexican people. They ought to feel assured that their prosperity is our prosperity, and that we cannot but have the strongest desire to see them elevated, under a free, stable, and republican government, to a high rank among the nations of the earth.

The nations on the continent of America, have interests peculiar to themselves. Their free forms of government are altogether different from the monarchical institutions of Europe. The interests and independence of these sister nations, require that they should establish and maintain an American system of policy, for their own protection and security, entirely distinct from that which has so long prevailed in Europe. To tolerate any interference on the part of European sovereigns, with controversies in America; to permit them to apply the worn-out dogma of the balance of power to the free states on this continent; and above all, to suffer them to establish new colonies of their own, intermingled with our free republics, would be to make, to the same extent, a voluntary sacrifice of our independence. These truths ought everywhere, throughout the continent of America, to be impressed on the public mind. If, therefore, in the course of your negotiations with Mexico, that government should propose the mediation or guarantee of any European power, you are to reject the proposition without hesitation. The United States will never afford, by their conduct, the slightest pretext for any interference from that quarter in American concerns. Separated as we are from the Old World by a vast ocean, and still further removed from it by the nature of our political institutions, the march of free governments on this continent must not be trammelled by the intrigues and selfish interests of European powers. Liberty here must be allowed to work out its natural results; and these, ere long, will astonish the world. Neither is it for the interest of those powers to plant colonies on this continent. No settlements of the kind can exist long. The expansive energy of free institutions must soon spread over them. The colonists themselves will break from the mother country to become free and independent States. Any European nation which should plant a new colony on this continent, would thereby sow the seeds of troubles and uproars, the injury from which, even to her interests, would far outweigh all the advantages which she could possibly promise herself from any such establishment.

(The Secretary of State here enters into a discussion of the claims of the United States against Mexico, and refers to the message of President Jackson of February 7th, 1837, in which he states that the Mexican outrages on the property of our citizens, and insults to our government, "would justify in the eyes of all nations immediate war; but that he preferred giving to Mexico one more opportunity to atone." He also refers to the convention which was concluded with Mexico in 1839, for the adjustment of claims, the organization of the Board of Commissioners, and amount of claims allowed, \$2,626,129 28, and the evasions and delays of Mexico, when a settlement has been demanded.) He then proceeds:

The result of the whole is, that the injuries and outrages committed by the authorities of Mexico on American citizens, which, in the opinion of President Jackson, would, so long ago as February, 1837, have justified a resort to war or reprisals for redress, yet remain wholly unredressed, excepting only the comparatively small amount received under the convention of April, 1839.

It will be your duty, in a prudent and friendly spirit, to impress the Mexican government with a sense of their great injustice towards the United States, as well as of the patient forbearance which has been exercised by us. This cannot be expected to endure much longer, and these claims must now speedily

be adjusted in a satisfactory manner. Already have the government of the United States too long omitted to obtain redress for their injured citizens.

But in what manner can this duty be performed consistently with the amicable spirit of your mission? The fact is, but too well known to the world, that the Mexican government are not now in a condition to satisfy these claims by the payment of money. Unless the debt should be assumed by the government of the United States, the claimants cannot receive what is justly their due. Fortunately, the joint resolution of Congress, approved March 1st, 1845, "for annexing Texas to the United States," presents the means of satisfying these claims, in perfect consistency with the interests, as well as the honor, of both republics. It has reserved to this government the adjustment "of all questions of boundary that may arise with other governments." This question of boundary may, therefore, be adjusted in such a manner between the two republics, as to cast the burden of the debt due to American claimants, on their own government, whilst it will do no injury to Mexico.

In order to arrive at a just conclusion on this subject, it is necessary briefly to state what, at present, are the territorial rights of the parties.

The Congress of Texas, by the act of December 19, 1836, have declared the Rio Del Norte, from its mouth to its source, to be a boundary of that republic.

In regard to the right of Texas to the boundary of the Del Norte, from the mouth to the Paso, there cannot, it is apprehended, be any very serious doubt. It would be easy to establish, by the authority of our most eminent statesmen—at a time, too, when the question of the boundary of the province of Louisiana was better understood than it is at present—that, to this extent at least, the Del Norte was its western limit. Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, in their communications of January 28, 1805, to Don Pedro Cevallos, then the Spanish Minister of Foreign Relations, asserts in the strongest terms, that the boundaries of that province "are the river Perdido to the east, and the Rio Bravo to the west." They say, "The facts and principles which justify this conclusion, are so satisfactory to our government, as to convince it that the United States have not a better right to the island of New Orleans, under the cession referred to (that of Louisiana) than they have to the whole district of territory which is above described"—Mr. Jefferson was at that time President, and Mr. Madison Secretary of State; and you will know how to appreciate their authority. In the subsequent negotiation with M. Cevallo, Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney conclusively vindicate the right of the United States as far west as the Del Norte. Down to the very conclusion of the Florida treaty, the United States asserted their right to this extent—not by words only, but by deeds. In 1818, this government having learned that a number of adventurers, chiefly Frenchmen, had landed at Galveston, with the avowed purpose of forming a settlement in that vicinity, despatched George Graham, Esq., with instructions to warn them to desist. The following is an extract from these instructions, dated 2d June, 1818:—The President wishes you to proceed, with all convenient speed, to that place (Galveston), unless, as is not improbable, you should, in the progress of the journey, learn that they have abandoned, or been driven from it. Should they have removed to Matagorda, or any other place north of the Rio Bravo, and within the territory claimed by the United States, you will repair thither, without, however, exposing yourself to be captured by any Spanish military force. When arrived, you will, in a suitable manner, make known to the chief or leader of the expedition, your authority from the government of the United States; and express the surprise with which the President has seen possession thus taken, without authority from the United States, of a place within their territorial limits, and upon which no lawful settlement can be made without their sanction. You will call upon him explicitly to avow under what national authority they profess to act, and take care that due warning be given to the whole body, that the place is within the United States, who will suffer no

permanent settlement to be made there, under any authority other than their own."

It cannot be doubted that the Florida treaty of 22d February, 1819, ceded to Spain all that part of ancient Louisiana within the present limits of Texas; and the more important inquiry now is, what is the extent of the territorial rights which Texas has acquired by the sword in a righteous resistance to Mexico. In your negotiations with Mexico the independence of Texas must be considered a settled fact, and is not to be called in question.

Texas achieved her independence on the plain of San Jacinto, in April, 1836, by one of the most decisive and memorable victories recorded in history. She then convinced the world, by her conduct and her courage, that she deserved to rank as an independent nation. To use the language of Mr. Webster, Secretary of State, in a dispatch to our Minister at Mexico, dated 8th July, 1842: "From the time of the battle of San Jacinto, in April, 1836, to the present moment, Texas has exhibited the same external signs of national independence as Mexico herself, and with quite as much stability of government. Practically free and independent; acknowledged as a political sovereignty by the principal powers of the world—no hostile foot finding rest within her territory for six or seven years; and Mexico herself refraining, for all that period, from any further attempt to re-establish her own authority over that territory," &c., &c.

Finally, on the 29th March, 1845, Mexico consented, in the most solemn form, through the intervention of the British and French governments, to acknowledge the independence of Texas; provided she would stipulate not to annex herself, or become subject to any country whatever.

It may, however, be contended on the part of Mexico, that the Nueces, and not the Del Norte, is the true western boundary of Texas. I need not furnish you arguments to controvert this position. You have been perfectly familiar with the subject from the beginning, and know that the jurisdiction of Texas has been extended beyond that river, and that representatives from the country between it and the Del Norte have participated in the deliberations both of her Congress and her Convention. Besides, this portion of the territory was embraced within the limits of ancient Louisiana.

The case is different with regard to New Mexico.—Santa Fe, its capital, was settled by the Spaniards more than two centuries ago, and that province has been ever since in their possession and that of the republic of Mexico. The Texans never have conquered or taken possession of it, nor have its people ever been represented in any of their legislative assemblies or conventions. The long and narrow valley of New Mexico, or Santa Fe, is situated on both banks of the Upper Del Norte, and is bounded on both sides by mountains. It is many hundred miles remote from other settled portions of Mexico; and from its distance, it is both difficult and expensive to defend the inhabitants against the tribes of fierce and warlike savages that roam over the surrounding country. From this cause it has suffered severely from their incursions. Mexico must expend far more in defending so distant a possession than she can possibly derive benefit from continuing to hold it.

[Mr. Buchanan then enjoins upon Mr. Slidell the importance of establishing such a boundary between the two countries, as to preclude all future difficulties, and suggests for this purpose to include New Mexico within our limits. As an inducement to Mexico, he writes thus:]

But the President desires to deal liberally by Mexico. You are therefore authorized to offer to assume the payment of all the just claims of our citizens against Mexico, and, in addition, to pay \$5,000,000 in case the Mexican government shall agree to establish the boundary of the two countries from the mouth of the Rio Grande, up the principal stream to the point where it touches the line of New Mexico; thence west of the river along the exterior line of that province, and so as to include the whole within the United States, until it again

intersects the river; thence up the principal stream of the same to its source, and thence due north until it intersects the forty-second degree of north latitude.

A boundary still preferable to this would be an extension of the line from the north-west corner of New Mexico, along the range of mountains until it would intersect the forty-second parallel.

Should the Mexican authorities prove unwilling to extend our boundaries beyond the Del Norte, you are, in that event, instructed to offer to assume the payment of all the just claims of citizens of the United States against Mexico, should she agree that the line shall be established along the boundary defined by the act of Congress of Texas, approved December 19, 1836, to wit:—beginning at “the mouth of the Rio Grande; thence up the principal stream of said river to its source; thence due north to the forty-second degree of north latitude.”

[The Secretary then adverts to the apprehended designs of Great Britain and France upon California, and determination of the government of the United States to prevent either Mexico or California becoming a British or French colony. He then proceeds.]

The possession of the bay and harbor of San Francisco is all important to the United States. The advantages to us of its acquisition are so striking that it would be a waste of time to enumerate them here. If all these should be turned against our country by the cession of California to Great Britain, our principal commercial rival, the consequence would be most disastrous.

The government of California is now but nominally dependent on Mexico; and it is more than doubtful whether her authority will ever be reinstated. Under these circumstances, it is the desire of the President that you should use your best efforts to obtain a cession of that province from Mexico to the United States.—Could you accomplish this object, you would render immense service to your country, and establish an enviable reputation for yourself. Money would be no object, when compared with the value of the acquisition. Still, the attempt must be made with great prudence and caution, and in such a manner as not to alarm the jealousy of the Mexican government. Should you, after sounding the Mexican authorities on the subject, discover a prospect of success, the President would not hesitate to give, in addition to the assumption of the just claims of our citizens on Mexico, twenty-five millions of dollars for the cession. Should you deem it expedient, you are authorized to offer this sum for a boundary running due west from the southern extremity of New Mexico, to the Pacific Ocean, or from any other point on its western boundary which would embrace Monterey within our limits. If Monterey cannot be obtained, you may, if necessary, in addition to the assumption of these claims, offer twenty millions of dollars for any boundary commencing at any point on the western line of New Mexico, and running due west to the Pacific, so as to include the bay and harbor of San Francisco. The larger the territory south of this bay the better. Of course, when I speak of any point on the western boundary of New Mexico, it is understood that from the Del Norte to that point our boundary shall run, according to the first offer which you have been authorized to make. I need scarcely add, that in authorizing the offer of five millions, or twenty-five millions, or twenty millions of dollars, these are to be considered as maximum sums. If you can accomplish either of the objects contemplated, for a less amount, so much more satisfactory will it prove to the President.

The views and wishes of the President are now before you, and much, at last, must be left to your own discretion. If you can accomplish any one of the specific objects which have been presented in these instructions, you are authorized to conclude a treaty to that effect. If you cannot, after you have ascertained what is practicable, you will ask for further instructions, and they shall be immediately communicated.

Your mission is one of the most delicate and important which has ever been

confided to a citizen of the United States. The people to whom you will be sent, are proverbially jealous; and they have been irritated against the United States, by recent events, and the intrigue of foreign powers. To conciliate their good will is indispensable to your success. I need not warn you against wounding their national vanity. You may probably have to endure their unjust reproaches with equanimity. It would be difficult to raise a point of honor between the United States and so feeble and distracted a power as Mexico. This reflection will teach you to bear and forbear much, for the sake of accomplishing the great objects of your mission. We are sincerely desirous to be on good terms with Mexico; and the President reposes implicit confidence in your patriotism, sagacity, and ability, to restore the ancient relations of friendship between the two republics.

* * * * *

I am, sir, with great respect,
Your obedient servant,
JAMES BUCHANAN.

JOHN SLIDELL, Esq.

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States to Mexico.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

WASHINGTON, February 29, 1848.

To the Senate of the United States:

In compliance with the resolution of the Senate, passed in "executive session" on yesterday, requesting the President "to communicate to the Senate, in confidence, the entire correspondence between Mr. Trist and the Mexican Commissioners, from the time of his arrival in Mexico until the time of the negotiation of the treaty submitted to the Senate; and also the entire correspondence between Mr. Trist and the Secretary of State in relation to his negotiations with the Mexican Commissioners; also, all the correspondence between Gen. Scott and the Government, and between Gen. Scott and Mr. Trist, since the arrival of Mr. Trist in Mexico, which may be in the possession of the Government," I transmit herewith the correspondence called for. These documents are very voluminous; and, presuming that the Senate desired them in reference to early action on the treaty with Mexico, submitted to the consideration of that body by my message of the 22d instant, the originals of several of the letters of Mr. Trist are herewith communicated, in order to save the time which would necessarily be required to make copies of them. These original letters it is requested may be returned when the Senate shall have no further use for them.

The letters of Mr. Trist to the Secretary of State, and especially such of them as bear date subsequent to the receipt by him of his letter of recall as commissioner, it will be perceived, contain much matter that is impertinent, irrelevant, and highly exceptionable. Four of these letters, bearing date respectively the 29th December, 1847; January 12, January 22, and January 25, 1848, have been received since the treaty was submitted to the Senate. In the latter it is stated that the Mexican Commissioners, who signed the treaty, derived "their full powers, bearing date on the 30th December, 1847, from the President *ad interim* of the republic, (Gen. Anaya,) constitutionally elected to that office in November, by the Sovereign Constituent Congress" of Mexico. It is impossible that I can approve the conduct of Mr. Trist, in disobeying the positive orders of his Government contained in the letter recalling him, or do otherwise

than condemn much of the matter with which he has chosen to encumber his voluminous correspondence. Though all of his acts, since his recall, might have been disavowed by his Government, yet Mexico can take no such exception. The treaty which the Mexican Commissioners have negotiated with him, with a full knowledge on their part that he had been recalled from his mission, is binding on Mexico.

Looking at the actual condition of Mexico, and believing that if the present treaty be rejected, the war will probably be continued, at great expense of life and treasure, for an indefinite period; and considering that the terms, with the exceptions mentioned in my Message of the 22d instant, conformed substantially, so far as relates to the main question of boundary, to those authorized by me in April last, I considered it to be my solemn duty to the country, uninfluenced by the exceptionable conduct of Mr. Trist, to submit the treaty to the Senate, with a recommendation that it be ratified with the modifications suggested.

Nothing contained in the letters received from Mr. Trist since it was submitted to the Senate has changed my opinion on the subject.

The resolution also calls for "all the correspondence between Gen. Scott and the Government since the arrival of Mr. Trist in Mexico." A portion of that correspondence, relating to Mr. Trist and his mission, accompanies this communication. The remainder of the "correspondence between Gen. Scott and the Government" relates mainly, if not exclusively, to military operations. A part of it was communicated to Congress with my Annual Message, and the whole of it will be sent to the Senate, if it shall be desired by that body.

As coming within the purview of the resolution, I also communicate copies of the letters of the Secretary of War to Major-Gen. Butler, in reference to Mr. Trist's remaining at the head-quarters of the army in the assumed exercise of his powers of commissioner.

JAMES K. POLK.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE IN RELATION TO OREGON.

The Message of the President, transmitted to Congress on Monday, is as follows:

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:—I lay before Congress the accompanying memorial and papers, which have been transmitted to me by a special messenger employed for that purpose by the Governor and "Legislative Assembly of Oregon Territory," who constitute the temporary government which the inhabitants of that distant region of our country have, from the necessity of their condition, organized for themselves. The memorialists are citizens of the United States. They express evident attachment to their native land, and in their present perilous and distressed situation they earnestly invoke the aid and protection of their government.

They represent that "the proud and powerful tribes of Indians," residing in their vicinity, have recently raised the "war-whoop and crimsoned their tomahawks in the blood of their citizens"—that they apprehend that "many of the powerful tribes inhabiting the upper valley of the Columbia, have formed an alliance for the purpose of carrying on hostilities against the settlements"—that the number of the white population is far inferior to that of the savages—that they are deficient in arms and money, and fear that they do not possess strength enough to repel the "attack of so formidable a foe, and protect their families and property from violence and rapine." They conclude their appeal to the government of the United States for relief by declaring—

"If it be at all the intention of our honored parent to spread her guardian

wing over her sons and daughters in Oregon, she surely will not refuse to do it now, when they are struggling with all the ills of a weak and temporary government, and when perils are daily thickening around them, and preparing to burst upon their heads. When the ensuing summer's sun shall have dispelled the snow from the mountains, we shall look with glowing hope and restless anxiety for the coming of your laws and your arms."

In my message of the 5th of August, 1846, communicating "a copy of the Convention for the settlement and adjustment of the Oregon boundary," I recommended to Congress, that "provision should be made by law, at the earliest practicable period, for the organization of a Territorial Government in Oregon." In my annual message of December, 1846, and again in December, 1847, this recommendation was repeated.

The population of Oregon is believed to exceed twelve thousand souls, and it is known that it will be increased by a large number of emigrants during the present season. The facts set forth in the accompanying memorials and papers, show that the dangers to which our fellow-citizens are exposed are so imminent, that I deem it to be my duty again to impress on Congress the strong claims which the inhabitants of that distant country have to the benefit of our laws and to the protection of our government.

I therefore again invite the attention of Congress to the subject, and recommend that laws be promptly passed establishing a territorial government, and granting authority to raise an adequate volunteer force for the defence and protection of its inhabitants. It is believed that a regiment of mounted men, with such additional force as may be raised in Oregon, will be sufficient to afford the desired protection. It is recommended that the forces raised for this purpose should engage to serve for twelve months, unless sooner discharged. No doubt is entertained that with proper inducements in land bounties, such a force can be raised in a short time. Upon the expiration of their service, many of them doubtless will desire to remain in the country, and settle upon the land which they may receive as bounty.

It is deemed important that provision be made for the appointment of a suitable number of Indian agents to reside among the various tribes in Oregon, and that appropriations be made to enable them to treat with these tribes, with a view to restore and preserve peace between them and the white inhabitants.

Should the laws recommended be promptly passed, the measure for their execution may be completed during the present season, and before the severity of winter will interpose obstacles in crossing the Rocky Mountains. If not promptly passed, a delay of another year will be the consequence, and may prove destructive to the white settlement in Oregon.

WASHINGTON, *May 29*, 1848.

JAMES K. POLK.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas a treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, between the United States of America and the Mexican republic, was concluded and signed at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo on the second day of February, one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight, which treaty, as amended by the Senate of the United States, is word for word as follows:

In the name of Almighty God:

The United States of America and the United Mexican States, animated by a sincere desire to put an end to the calamities of the war which unhappily exists

between the two republics, and to establish upon a solid basis relations of peace and friendship, which shall confer reciprocal benefits upon the citizens of both, and assure the concord, harmony, and mutual confidence wherein the two people should live, as good neighbors, have for that purpose appointed their respective plenipotentiaries—that is to say, the President of the United States has appointed Nicholas P. Trist, a citizen of the United States, and the President of the Mexican republic has appointed Don Luis Gonzaga Cuevas, Don Bernardo Couto, and Don Miguel Atristain, citizens of the said republic, who, after a reciprocal communication of their respective full powers, have, under the protection of Almighty God, the author of peace, arranged, agreed upon, and signed the following

Treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic.

Art. 1. There shall be firm and universal peace between the United States of America and the Mexican republic, and between their respective countries, territories, cities, towns, and people, without exception of places or persons.

Art. 2. Immediately upon the signature of this treaty, a convention shall be entered into between a commissioner or commissioners appointed by the General-in-chief of the forces of the United States, and such as may be appointed by the Mexican Government, to the end that a provisional suspension of hostilities shall take place, and that, in the places occupied by the said forces, constitutional order may be re-established, as regards the political, administrative, and judicial branches, so far as this shall be permitted by the circumstances of military occupation.

Art. 3. Immediately upon the ratification of the present treaty by the Government of the United States, orders shall be transmitted to the commanders of their land and naval forces, requiring the latter (provided this treaty shall then have been ratified by the Government of the Mexican republic, and the ratifications exchanged) immediately to desist from blockading any Mexican ports; and requiring the former (under the same condition) to commence, at the earliest moment practicable, withdrawing all troops of the United States then in the interior of the Mexican republic, to points that shall be selected by common agreement, at a distance from the seaports not exceeding thirty leagues; and such evacuation of the interior of the republic shall be completed with the least possible delay; the Mexican Government hereby binding itself to afford every facility in its power for rendering the same convenient to the troops on their march and in their new positions, and for promoting a good understanding between them and the inhabitants. In like manner, orders shall be dispatched to the persons in charge of the custom-houses at all ports occupied by the forces of the United States, requiring them (under the same condition) immediately to deliver possession of the same to the persons authorized by the Mexican Government to receive it, together with all bonds and evidences of debt for duties on importations and exportations not yet fallen due. Moreover a faithful and exact account shall be made out, showing the entire amount of all duties on imports and on exports collected at such custom houses or elsewhere in Mexico by authority of the United States, from and after the day of ratification of this treaty by the Government of the Mexican republic; and also an account of the cost of collection, and such entire amount, deducting only the cost of collection, shall be delivered to the Mexican Government, at the city of Mexico, within three months after the exchange of ratifications.

The evacuation of the capital of the Mexican republic by the troops of the United States, in virtue of the above stipulation, shall be completed in one month after the orders there stipulated for shall have been received by the commander of said troops, or sooner, if possible.

Art. 4. Immediately after the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, all castles, forts, territories, places, and possessions, which have been taken or occupied by the forces of the United States during the present war, within the limits of the Mexican republic, as about to be established by the following article, shall be definitely restored to the said republic, together with all the artillery, arms, apparatus of war, munitions, and other public property, which were in the said castles and forts when captured, and which shall remain there at the time when this treaty shall be duly ratified by the Government of the Mexican republic. To this end, immediately upon the signature of this treaty, orders shall be dispatched to the American officers commanding such castles and forts, securing against the removal or destruction of any such artillery, arms, apparatus of war, munitions, or other public property. The city of Mexico, within the inner line of entrenchments surrounding the said city, is comprehended in the above stipulations, as regards the restoration of artillery, apparatus of war, &c.

The final evacuation of the territory of the Mexican republic by the forces of the United States, shall be completed in three months from the said exchange of ratifications, or sooner, if possible; the Mexican Government hereby engaging, as in the foregoing article, to use all means in its power for facilitating such evacuation, and rendering it convenient to the troops, and for promoting a good understanding between them and the inhabitants.

If, however, the ratification of this treaty by both parties should not take place in time to allow the embarkation of the troops of the United States to be completed before the commencement of the sickly season at the Mexican ports on the Gulf of Mexico, in such case a friendly arrangement shall be entered into between the General-in-chief of the said troops and the Mexican Government, whereby healthy and otherwise suitable places, at a distance from the ports not exceeding thirty leagues, shall be designated for the residence of such troops as may not yet have embarked, until the return of the healthy season. And the space of time here referred to as comprehending the sickly season shall be understood to extend from the first day of May to the first day of November.

All prisoners of war taken on either side, on land or on sea, shall be restored as soon as practicable after the exchange of ratifications of this treaty. It is also agreed that if any Mexicans should now be held as captives by any savage tribe within the limits of the United States, as about to be established by the following article, the Government of the said United States will exact the release of such captives, and cause them to be restored to their country.

Art. 5. The boundary line between the two republics shall commence in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande, otherwise called Rio Bravo del Norte, or opposite the mouth of its deepest branch, if it should have more than one branch emptying directly into the sea; from thence up the middle of that river, following the deepest channel, where it has more than one, to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico; thence, westwardly, along the whole southern boundary of New Mexico (which runs north of the town called *Paso*) to its western termination; thence, northward, along the western line of New Mexico, until it intersects the first branch of the river Gila; (or if it should not intersect any branch of that river, then to the point on the said line nearest to such branch, and thence in a direct line to the same;) thence down the middle of the said branch and of the said river, until it empties into the Rio Colorado; thence across the Rio Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California, to the Pacific ocean.

The southern and western limits of New Mexico, mentioned in this article, are those laid down in the map entitled "*Map of the United Mexican States, as organized and defined by various acts of the Congress of said Republic, and con-*

structed according to the best authorities. Revised Edition. Published at New York in 1847, by J. Disturnell." Of which map a copy is added to this treaty, bearing the signatures and seals of the undersigned plenipotentiaries. And, in order to preclude all difficulty in tracing upon the ground the limit separating Upper from Lower California, it is agreed that the said limit shall consist of a straight line drawn from the middle of the Rio Gila, where it unites with the Colorado, to a point on the coast of the Pacific ocean distant one marine league due south of the southernmost point of the port of San Diego, according to the plan of said port made in the year 1782, by Don Juan Pantoja, second sailing-master of the Spanish fleet, and published at Madrid in the year 1802, in the Atlas to the voyage of the schooners *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, of which plan a copy is hereunto added, signed and sealed by the respective plenipotentiaries.

In order to designate the boundary line with due precision, upon authoritative maps, and to establish upon the ground landmarks which shall show the limits of both republics, as described in the present article, the two Governments shall each appoint a commissioner and a surveyor, who, before the expiration of one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, shall meet at the port of San Diego, and proceed to run and mark the said boundary in its whole course to the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte. They shall keep journals and mark out plans of their operations; and the result agreed upon by them shall be deemed a part of this treaty, and shall have the same force as if it were inserted therein. The two Governments will amicably agree regarding what may be necessary to these persons, and also as to their respective escorts, should such be necessary.

The boundary line established by this article shall be religiously respected by each of the two republics, and no change shall ever be made therein, except by the express and free consent of both nations, lawfully given by the General Government of each, in conformity with its own constitution.

Art 6. The vessels and citizens of the United States shall, in all times, have a free and uninterrupted passage by the Gulf of California, and by the river Colorado below its confluence with the Gila, to and from their possessions situated north of the boundary line defined in the preceding article; it being understood that this passage is to be by navigating the gulf of California and the river Colorado, and not by land, without the express consent of the Mexican Government.

If, by the examinations which may be made, it should be ascertained to be practical and advantageous to construct a road, canal, or railway, which should in whole or in part run upon the river Gila, or upon its right or its left bank, within the space of one marine league from either margin of the river, the Governments of both republics will form an agreement regarding its construction, in order that it may serve equally for the use and advantage of both countries.

Art. 7. The river Gila, and the part of the Rio Bravo del Norte lying below the southern boundary of New Mexico, being, agreeably to the fifth article, divided in the middle between the two republics, the navigation of the Gila and of the Bravo below said boundary shall be free and common to the vessels and citizens of both countries; and neither shall, without the consent of the other, construct any work that may impede or interrupt, in whole or in part, the exercise of this right; not even for the purpose of favoring new methods of navigation. Nor shall any tax or contribution, under any denomination or title, be levied upon vessels or persons navigating the same, or upon merchandise or effects transported thereon, except in the case of landing upon one of their shores. If, for the purpose of making the said rivers navigable, or for maintaining them in such state, it should be necessary or advantageous to establish any tax or contribution, this shall not be done without the consent of both Governments.

The stipulations contained in the present article shall not impair the territorial rights of either republic within its established limits.

Art. 8. Mexicans now established in territories previously belonging to Mexico, and which remain for the future within the limits of the United States, as defined by the present treaty, shall be free to continue where they now reside, or to remove at any time to the Mexican republic, retaining the property which they possess in the said territories, or disposing thereof, and removing the proceeds wherever they please, without their being subjected, on this account, to any contribution, tax, or charge whatever.

Those who shall prefer to remain in the said territories, may either retain the title and rights of Mexican citizens, or acquire those of citizens of the United States. But they shall be under the obligation to make their election within one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty; and those who shall remain in the said territories after the expiration of that year, without having declared their intention to retain the character of Mexicans, shall be considered to have elected to become citizens of the United States.

In the said territories property of every kind, now belonging to Mexicans not established there, shall be inviolably respected. The present owners, the heirs of these, and all Mexicans who may hereafter acquire said property by contract, shall enjoy with respect to it guaranties equally ample as if the same belonged to citizens of the United States.

Art. 9. Mexicans who, in the territories aforesaid, shall not preserve the character of citizens of the Mexican republic, conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding articles, shall be incorporated into the union of the United States, and be admitted at the proper time (to be judged of by the Congress of the United States) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States, according to the principles of the constitution; and in the mean time shall be maintained and protected in the enjoyment of their liberty and property, and secured in the free exercise of their religion without restriction.

Art. 10. [Stricken out.]

Art. 11. Considering that a great part of the territories which, by the present treaty, are to be comprehended for the future within the limits of the United States, is now occupied by savage tribes, who will hereafter be under the exclusive control of the Government of the United States, and whose incursions within the territory of Mexico would be prejudicial in the extreme, it is solemnly agreed that all such incursions shall be forcibly restrained by the Government of the United States, whensoever this may be necessary; and that, when they cannot be prevented, they shall be punished by the said Government, and satisfaction for the same shall be exacted—all in the same way, and with equal diligence and energy, as if the same incursions were meditated or committed within its own territory, against its own citizens.

It shall not be lawful, under any pretext whatever, for any inhabitant of the United States to purchase or acquire any Mexican, or any foreigner residing in Mexico, who may have been captured by Indians inhabiting the territory of either of the two republics, nor to purchase or acquire horses, mules, cattle, or property of any kind, stolen within Mexican territory by such Indians.

And in the event of any person or persons captured within Mexican territory by Indians being carried into the territory of the United States, the Government of the latter engages and binds itself, in the most solemn manner, so soon as it shall know of such captives being within its territory, and shall be able so to do, through the faithful exercise of its influence and power, to rescue them and return them to their country, or deliver them to the agent or representative of the Mexican Government. The Mexican authorities will, as far as practicable, give to the Government of the United States notice of such captures, and its agent shall pay the expenses incurred in the maintenance and transmission of the rescued captives, who in the mean time shall be treated with the utmost hospitality

by the American authorities at the place where they may be. But if the Government of the United States, before receiving such notice from Mexico, should obtain intelligence, through any other channel, of the existence of Mexican captives within its territory, it will proceed forthwith to effect their release and delivery to the Mexican agent, as above stipulated.

For the purpose of giving to these stipulations the fullest possible efficacy, thereby affording the security and redress demanded by their true spirit and intent, the Government of the United States will now and hereafter pass, without unnecessary delay, and always vigilantly enforce, such laws as the nature of the subject may require. And, finally, the sacredness of this obligation shall never be lost sight of by the said Government when providing for the removal of the Indians from any portion of the said territories, or for its being settled by citizens of the United States; but, on the contrary, special care shall then be taken not to place its Indian occupants under the necessity of seeking new homes, by committing those invasions which the United States have solemnly obliged themselves to restrain.

Art. 12. In consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States, as defined in the fifth article of the present treaty, the Government of the United States engages to pay to that of the Mexican Republic the sum of fifteen millions of dollars.

Immediately after this treaty shall have been duly ratified by the Government of the Mexican Republic, the sum of three millions of dollars shall be paid to the said Government by that of the United States, at the city of Mexico, in the gold or silver coin of Mexico. The remaining twelve millions of dollars shall be paid at the same place, and in the same coin, in annual instalments of three millions of dollars each, together with interest on the same at the rate of six per centum per annum. This interest shall begin to run upon the whole sum of twelve millions from the day of the ratification of the present treaty by the Mexican Government, and the first of the instalments shall be paid at the expiration of one year from the same day. Together with each annual instalment as it falls due, the whole interest accruing on such instalment from the beginning shall also be paid.

Art. 13. The United States engage, moreover, to assume and pay to the claimants all the amounts now due them, and those hereafter to become due, by reason of the claims already liquidated and decided against the Mexican Republic, under the conventions between the two Republics severally concluded on the 11th day of April, eighteen hundred and thirty-nine, and on the thirtieth day of January, eighteen hundred and forty-three; so that the Mexican Republic shall be absolutely exempt, for the future, from all expense whatever on account of the said claims.

Art. 14. The United States do furthermore discharge the Mexican Republic from all claims of citizens of the United States not heretofore decided against the Mexican Government, which may have arisen previously to the date of the signature of this treaty; which discharge shall be final and perpetual, whether the said claims be rejected or be allowed by the board of commissioners, provided for in the following article, and whatever shall be the total amount of those allowed.

Art. 15. The United States, exonerating Mexico from all demands on account of the claims of their citizens mentioned in the preceding article, and considering them entirely and forever cancelled, whatever their amount may be, undertake to make satisfaction for the same, to an amount not exceeding three and one quarter millions of dollars. To ascertain the validity and amount of those claims, a board of commissioners shall be established by the Government of the United States, whose awards shall be final and conclusive; provided that, in deciding upon the validity of each claim, the board shall be guided and governed by the principles and rules of decision prescribed by the first and fifth articles

of the unratified convention, concluded at the city of Mexico on the twentieth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and forty-three; and in no case shall an award be made in favor of any claim not embraced by these principles and rules.

If, in the opinion of the said board of commissioners, or of the claimants, any books, records, or documents, in the possession or power of the Government of the Mexican Republic, shall be deemed necessary to the just decision of any claim, the commissioners, or the claimants through them, shall, within such period as Congress may designate, make an application in writing for the same, addressed to the Mexican Minister for Foreign Affairs, to be transmitted by the Secretary of State of the United States; and the Mexican Government engages, at the earliest possible moment after the receipt of such demand, to cause any of the books, records, or documents, so specified, which shall be in their possession or power, (or authenticated copies or extracts of the same,) to be transmitted to the said Secretary of State, who shall immediately deliver them over to the said board of commissioners: *Provided*, That no such application shall be made by, or at the instance of, any claimant, until the facts which it is expected to prove by such books, records, or documents, shall have been stated under oath or affirmation.

Art. 16. Each of the contracting parties reserves to itself the entire right to fortify whatever point within its territory it may judge proper so to fortify for its security.

Art. 17. The treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, concluded at the city of Mexico on the 5th day of April, A. D. 1831, between the United States of America and the United Mexican States, except the additional article, and except so far as the stipulations of the said treaty may be incompatible with any stipulation contained in the present treaty, is hereby revived for the period of eight years from the day of the exchange of ratification of this treaty, with the same force and virtue as if incorporated therein; it being understood that each of the contracting parties reserve to itself the right, at any time after the said period of eight years shall have expired, to terminate the same by giving one year's notice of such intention to the other party.

Art. 18. All supplies whatever for troops of the United States in Mexico, arriving at ports in the occupation of such troops previous to the final evacuation thereof, although subsequently to the restoration of the custom houses at such ports, shall be entirely exempt from duties and charges of any kind: the Government of the United States hereby engaging and pledging its faith to establish, and vigilantly to enforce, all possible guards for securing the revenue of Mexico, by preventing the importation, under cover of this stipulation, of any articles other than such, both in kind and in quantity, as shall really be wanted for the use and consumption of the forces of the United States during the time they may remain in Mexico. To this end it shall be the duty of all officers and agents of the United States to denounce to the Mexican authorities at the respective ports any attempts at a fraudulent abuse of this stipulation which they may know of, or may have reason to suspect, and to give to such authorities all the aid in their power with regard thereto; and every such attempt, when duly proved and established by sentence of a competent tribunal, shall be punished by the confiscation of the property so attempted to be fraudulently introduced.

Art. 19. With respect to all merchandise, effects, and property whatsoever, imported into ports of Mexico whilst in the occupation of the forces of the United States, whether by citizens of either republic, or by citizens or subjects of any neutral nation, the following rules shall be observed:

1. All such merchandise, effects, and property, if imported previously to the restoration of the custom-houses to the Mexican authorities, as stipulated for in the third article of this treaty, shall be exempt from confiscation, although the importation of the same be prohibited by the Mexican tariff.

2. The same perfect exemption shall be enjoyed by all such merchandise, effects, and property imported subsequently to the restoration of the custom houses, and previously to the sixty days fixed in the following article for the coming into force of the Mexican tariff at such ports respectively; the said merchandise, effects, and property being, however, at the time of their importation, subject to the payment of duties, as provided for in the said following article.

3. All merchandise, effects, and property described in the two rules foregoing, shall, during their continuance at the place of importation, and upon their leaving such place for the interior, be exempt from all duty, tax, or impost of every kind, under whatsoever title or denomination. Nor shall they be there subjected to any charge whatsoever upon the sale thereof.

4. All merchandise, effects, and property described in the first and second rules, which shall have been removed to any place in the interior whilst such place was in the occupation of the forces of the United States, shall during their continuance therein, be exempt from all tax upon the sale or consumption thereof, and from every kind of impost or contribution, under whatsoever title or denomination.

5. But if any merchandise, effects, or property, described in the first and second rules, shall be removed to any place not occupied at the time by the forces of the United States, they shall, upon their introduction into such place, or upon their sale or consumption there, be subject to the same duties which, under the Mexican laws, they would be required to pay in such cases if they had been imported in time of peace, through the maritime custom-houses, and had there paid the duties conformably with the Mexican tariff.

6. The owners of all merchandise, effects, or property, described in the first and second rules, and existing in any port of Mexico, shall have the right to re-ship the same, exempt from all tax, impost, or contribution whatever.

With respect to the metals or other property, exported from any Mexican port whilst in the occupation of the forces of the United States, and previously to the restoration of the custom-house at such port, no person shall be required by the Mexican authorities, whether general or State, to pay any tax, duty, or contribution upon any such exportation, or in any manner to account for the same to the said authorities.

Art. 20. Through consideration for the interests of commerce generally, it is agreed that if less than sixty days should elapse between the date of the signature of this treaty and the restoration of the custom-houses, conformably with the stipulation in the third article, in such case all merchandise, effects, and property whatsoever, arriving at the Mexican ports after the restoration of the said custom-houses and previously to the expiration of sixty days after the day of the signature of this treaty, shall be admitted to entry; and no other duties shall be levied thereon than the duties established by the tariff found in force at such custom-houses at the time of the restoration of the same; and to all such merchandise, effects, and property the rules established by the preceding article shall apply.

Art. 21. If unhappily any disagreement should hereafter arise between the Governments of the two republics, whether with respect to the interpretation of any stipulation in this treaty, or with respect to any other particular concerning the political or commercial relations of the two nations, the said Governments, in the name of those nations, do promise to each other that they will endeavor, in the most sincere and earnest manner, to settle the differences so arising, and to preserve the state of peace and friendship in which the two countries are now placing themselves, using for this end mutual representations and pacific negotiations; and if by these means they should not be enabled to come to an agreement, a resort shall not, on this account, be had to reprisals, aggression, or hostility of any kind, by the one republic against the other, until the Government of that which deems itself aggrieved shall have maturely con-

sidered, in the spirit of peace and good neighborhood, whether it would not be better that such difference should be settled by the arbitration of commissioners appointed on each side, or by that of a friendly nation; and, should such course be proposed by either party, it shall be acceded to by the other, unless deemed by it altogether incompatible with the nature of the difference or the circumstances of the case.

Art. 22. If (which is not to be expected, and which God forbid!) war should unhappily break out between the two republics, they do now, with a view to such calamity, solemnly pledge themselves to each other and to the world, to observe the following rules—absolutely, where the nature of the subject permits, and as closely as possible in all cases where such absolute observance shall be impossible:

1. The merchants of either republic then residing in the other shall be allowed to remain twelve months, (for those dwelling in the interior,) and six months for those dwelling at the seaports,) to collect their debts and settle their affairs; during which periods they shall enjoy the same protection, and be on the same footing in all respects, as the citizens or subjects of the most friendly nations; and, at the expiration thereof, or at any time before, they shall have full liberty to depart, carrying off all their effects without molestation or hinderance; conforming therein to the same laws which the citizens or subjects of the most friendly nations are required to conform to. Upon the entrance of the armies of either nation into the territories of the other, women and children, ecclesiastics, scholars of every faculty, cultivators of the earth, merchants, artisans, manufacturers, and fishermen, unarmed, and inhabiting unfortified towns, villages, or places, and in general all persons whose occupations are for the common subsistence and benefit of mankind, shall be allowed to continue their respective employments unmolested in their persons. Nor shall their houses or goods be burnt, or otherwise destroyed, nor their cattle taken, nor their fields wasted, by the armed force into whose power, by the events of war, they may happen to fall; but if the necessity arise to take anything from them for the use of such armed force, the same shall be paid for at an equitable price. All churches, hospitals, schools, colleges, libraries, and other establishments for charitable and beneficent purposes, shall be respected, and all persons connected with the same protected in the discharge of their duties and the pursuit of their vocations.

2. In order that the fate of prisoners of war may be alleviated, all such practices as those of sending them into distant, inclement, or unwholesome districts, or crowding them into close and noxious places, shall be studiously avoided. They shall not be confined in dungeons, prison-ships, or prisons; nor be put in irons, or bound, or otherwise restrained in the use of their limbs. The officers shall enjoy liberty on their paroles, within convenient districts, and have comfortable quarters; and the common soldiers shall be disposed in cantonments, open and extensive enough for air and exercise, and lodged in barracks as roomy and good as are provided by the party in whose power they are, for its own troops. But if any officer shall break his parole by leaving the district so assigned him, or any other prisoner shall escape from the limits of his cantonment, after they shall have been designated to him, such individual, officer, or other prisoner shall forfeit so much of the benefit of this article as provides for his liberty on parole or in cantonment. And if any officer so breaking his parole, or any common soldier so escaping from the limits assigned him, shall afterwards be found in arms, previously to his being regularly exchanged, the person so offending shall be dealt with according to the established laws of war. The officers shall be daily furnished by the party in whose power they are, with as many rations; and of the same articles, as are allowed, either in kind or by commutation, to officers of equal rank in its own army; and all others shall be daily furnished with such rations as is allowed to a common soldier in its own service; the value of all which supplies shall, at the close of the war, or at periods to be agreed

upon between the respective commanders, be paid by the other party, on a mutual adjustment of accounts for the subsistence of prisoners; and such accounts shall not be mingled with or set off against any others, nor the balance due on them be withheld as a compensation or reprisal for any cause whatever, real or pretended. Each party shall be allowed to keep a commissary of prisoners, appointed by itself, with every cantonment of prisoners in possession of the other; which commissary shall see the prisoners as often as he pleases; shall be allowed to receive, exempt from all duties or taxes, and to distribute whatever comforts may be sent to them by their friends; and shall be free to transmit his reports in open letters to the party by whom he is employed.

And it is declared, that neither the pretence that war dissolves all treaties, nor any other whatever, shall be considered as annulling or suspending the solemn covenant contained in this article. On the contrary, the state of war is precisely that for which it is provided, and during which its stipulations are to be as sacredly observed as the most acknowledged obligations under the law of nature or of nations.

Art. 23. This treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and by the President of the Mexican Republic, with the previous approbation of its general Congress; and the ratification shall be exchanged in the city of Washington, or at the seat of government of Mexico, in four months from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner if practicable.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement; and have hereunto affixed our seals respectively.

Done in quintuplicate, at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the second day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight.

N. P. TRIST,	[L. s.]
LUIS G. CUEVAS,	[L. s.]
BERNARDO COUTO,	[L. s.]
MIGL. ATRISTAIN,	[L. s.]

And whereas the said treaty, as amended, has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications of the same were exchanged at Queretaro on the thirtieth day of May last, by Ambrose H. Sevier and Nathan Clifford, Commissioners on the part of the Government of the United States, and by Senor Don Luis de la Rosa, Minister of Relations of the Mexican Republic, on the part of that Government:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, JAMES K. POLK, President of the United States of America, have caused the said treaty to be made public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this fourth day of July, one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States [L. s.] the seventy-third.

JAMES K. POLK.

By the President: JAMES BUCHANAN, Secretary of State.

ARTICLES REFERRED TO IN THE 15TH ARTICLE OF THE PRECEDING TREATY.

First and Fifth Articles of the unratified Convention between the United States and the Mexican Republic, of the twentieth of November, 1843.

Art. 1. All claims of citizens of the Mexican Republic against the Government of the United States, which shall be presented in the manner and time

hereinafter expressed; and all claims of citizens of the United States against the Government of the Mexican Republic, which, for whatever cause, were not submitted to, nor considered, nor finally decided, by the commission, nor by the arbiter appointed by the convention of 1839, and which shall be presented in the manner and time hereinafter specified, shall be referred to four commissioners, who shall form a board, and shall be appointed in the following manner, that is to say: Two commissioners shall be appointed by the President of the Mexican Republic, and the other two by the President of the United States, with the approbation and consent of the Senate. The said commissioners, thus appointed, shall, in presence of each other, take an oath to examine and decide impartially the claims submitted to them, and which may lawfully be considered, according to the proofs which shall be presented, the principles of right and justice, the law of nations, and the treaties between the two republics.

Art. 5. All claims of citizens of the United States against the Government of the Mexican Republic, which were considered by the commissioners, and referred to the umpire appointed under the convention of the eleventh of April, 1839, and which were not decided by him, shall be referred to and decided by the umpire to be appointed, as provided by this convention, on the points submitted to the umpire under the late convention, and his decision shall be final and conclusive. It is also agreed that, if the respective commissioners shall deem it expedient, they may submit to the said arbiter new arguments upon the said claims.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF MEXICO, *Mexico, May 29, 1848.*

ORDERS No. 112.

1. Under a deep sense of gratitude to the Almighty, Major-General Butler announces to the army under his command that the Mexican war is ended.

The great object of the campaign has been accomplished. A treaty of peace, just and honorable to both nations, has been duly ratified.

It now becomes the pleasing duty of the Commanding General to restore to a grateful country the gallant army which has so nobly sustained her rights and added to her renown.

The homeward march will be at once commenced, and it is expected that the most perfect order and discipline will be observed. Ample supplies of all kinds will be furnished at convenient posts, and there will be no excuse for the slightest depredations, which would be totally at war with the existing relations between the two countries.

2. In accordance with the foregoing the troops in the valley of Mexico and at the surrounding posts will move to the rear in the following order on Jalapa, and encamp at some favorable place in its vicinity, or at Encero, until suitable transportation can be prepared to transport them to the United States. 1st. The siege train, under Lieutenant Hagner, Ordnance Department, and Captain Roland; heavy battery with a company of the 3d artillery as an additional escort. This train to proceed on to Vera Cruz. 2d. First division of volunteers, commanded by Major-General Patterson. 3d. Second division of volunteers, commanded by Brigadier-General Marshall. 4th. Third division of regular troops, commanded by Colonel Trousdale, the senior colonel on duty with it, except the 9th infantry at Pachuca, which, with the detachments at that place, will march *via* Apan and Perote. 5th. Second division of regular troops, commanded by Brigadier-General Kearney. 6th. First division of regular troops, commanded by Brevet Major-General Worth. Each division will have assigned to it at least one company of horse. The dragoons not assigned to divisions will receive

special orders for their march. The chiefs of the several departments, when not otherwise specially instructed, will accompany the head-quarters.

3. The volunteer divisions on the march will be joined by such troops as may belong to them at the post intermediate between the city of Mexico and Jalapa, which will leave sufficient guards of regular troops at Rio Frio, Puebla, and Perote, to protect the supplies until the rear division comes up, when these small garrisons will march with said division—all detached men, including recruits, will in like manner join their respective regiments on the march.

4. Ample supplies of forage and subsistence have been placed in depot at Puebla, Perote, and Jalapa, and forage at Rio Frio. Tents and shoes, it is expected, will be at Puebla, from which the troops requiring such articles can be supplied.

5. All ordnance and ordnance stores and other public property in the city of Mexico, Chapultepec, Perote, Vera Cruz, and elsewhere, which reverts to the Mexican Government under the fourth article of the treaty of peace, will be delivered to agents of said government duly authorized to receive the same.

6. Such ordnance and ordnance stores, quartermasters' stores and subsistence not required for the troops, and which cannot be transported, or which on other accounts it may be advisable to dispose of, will be sold under the orders of the chiefs of the ordnance, quartermasters, and subsistence departments respectively.

7. Should it become necessary to transport any surplus stores or specie, the wagon train for the purpose will proceed to Jalapa with the first division of regulars.

8. Prisoners under the sentence of death, or to be dishonorably discharged at the expiration of the war, will accompany their respective regiments.

9. All the volunteer troops will be transported to New Orleans, there to be mustered out of the service, and paid by officers specially assigned to the duty, except the troops from Georgia and South Carolina, which will be sent to Mobile for the like purpose.

Major-General Patterson's division will proceed in advance. Should other instructions not be received from the War Department all the regular troops in the order laid down for the march in paragraph second will be transported to New Orleans, there to receive further orders from Washington.

No troops will leave the camp near Jalapa until notified by Brevet Brigadier-General Smith, commanding at Vera Cruz, that vessels are prepared for them.

10. Owing to the lateness of the season and the difficulty of speedily procuring transportation for a large army, it may be impossible to transport horses. Troops must first be embarked; officers entitled to forage, except general officers who are restricted to two horses, may take one horse each if it can be done without incommoding the troops.

Battery horses will next be transported, then dragoon horses and horses of volunteers if the number of vessels will admit of it.

11. The Commanding General at Tampico will order the evacuation of that place according to the principles laid down in this order.

By order of Major-General Butler:

L. THOMAS, *Ass't. Adj.-General.*

OFFICIAL DISPATCH RESPECTING THE TREATY.—The following communication from our Commissioners in Mexico, appears in the *Washington Union*:

CITY OF QUERETARO, *May 25, 1848, 9 o'clock P. M.*

SIR:—We have the satisfaction to inform you, that we reached this city this afternoon at about five o'clock, and that the treaty as amended by the Senate of the United States, passed the Mexican Senate about the hour of our arrival, by

a vote of 33 to 5. It having previously passed the House of Deputies, nothing now remains but to exchange the ratification of the treaty.

At about four leagues from this city we were met by a Mexican escort, under the command of Col. Herrera, and were escorted to a house prepared by the government for our reception. The Minister of Foreign Relations, and the governor of the city, called upon us, and accompanied us to dinner, which they had previously ordered. So far as the government is concerned, every facility and honor have been offered us, and St. Rosa, the Minister of Foreign Relations, desires us to state that he feels great satisfaction in meeting the Ministers of Peace from the United States.

We will write to you again shortly, and more at length, as the courier is on the point of departure.

The city appears to be in a great state of exultation, fireworks going on, and bands of music parading in every direction. We have the honor to be your obedient servants,

A. H. SEVIER,
NATHAN CLIFFORD.

Hon. JAMES BUCHANAN, *Secretary of State.*

The following is a translation of the Address of the United States Commissioners, on their presentation as Ministers Plenipotentiary to the President of the Mexican republic:

SIR: We have come hither to present to you our credentials as Commissioners of the United States for the exchange of ratifications of the treaty signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, with the modifications made in Washington by the Senate.

The Mexican Congress having approved the treaty as modified, all that is wanting for the complete re-establishment of peace between the two countries is the exchange of ratifications. We sincerely congratulate you upon this auspicious result, and we shall ever have reason for the most grateful recollections, as we have been in a measure the instruments of accomplishing it.

Your Excellency may be assured that the wishes of the United States are for the prosperity of Mexico, and that they well know that in this prosperity their own interests are deeply involved.

May the two countries, like sister republics, ever maintain the most friendly relations; in both may liberal institutions flourish by means of mutual efforts, so that both may reach that height of national greatness whose foundation stone is intelligence, education, and virtue, and that in their elevation they may serve as a beacon-light in the pathway of popular enfranchisement, in which the nations of the civilized world are now struggling and advancing with new vigor and unbounded hope.

Sincerely animated by these sentiments, we have the honor of placing our credentials in your hands.

The following is a translation of the reply of President Pena y Pena:

GENTLEMEN: With the greatest satisfaction I have received from your hands the credentials which you have presented for the exchange of ratifications of the treaty signed in the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, with the modifications made in Washington by the Senate, which treaty has just received the approval of the Mexican Congress.

I owe you the most expressive thanks for the sentiments of friendship and good will which you have manifested towards the Mexican Republic. In its name I assure you that these sentiments are completely reciprocated, and that, as Chief Magistrate of the Republic, I desire nothing more ardently than that our treaty may become the immutable basis of that constant harmony and good understanding which should cordially prevail between two Republics, in order that they may be prosperous, powerful, and respected in the general society of nations.

After the exchange of ratifications, the night of the 30th ultimo, Mr. Sevier addressed the President in the following terms, as translated from the Spanish:

SIR:—In taking leave of your Excellency, after the accomplishment of the object which brought us to this country, we declare with the utmost sincerity that in many years of vicissitudes consequent upon public service in the affairs of our country, no event has ever occurred which has given us more pleasure than the exchange of ratifications of the treaty which re-establishes once more peace between the United States and Mexico. In fact, this event will be regarded with satisfaction by all honorable men of both nations.

We sincerely hope that the distinguished part which your Excellency and the other members of the Administration have taken in the accomplishment of so desirable a work may be remembered with gratitude in both countries.

My colleague, Mr. Clifford, by the order of our Government and with the permission of your Excellency, will remain in Mexico, and upon my return to Washington, he will, without doubt, be charged with a new mission as minister resident in Mexico. Our Government, whose confidence he possesses in a high degree, hopes that, in the discharge of his duties in behalf of the United States, consulting for their honor and well-being, he may demean himself in such a manner as to secure the sympathies of the Mexican authorities.

In accordance with your assent already given, I shall return as soon as possible to the United States with the treaty of peace which has this day been entrusted to me, and I hope to reach Washington before the close of the session of Congress. I need not say to your Excellency that my arrival in that city with the treaty of peace will be hailed with the most cordial gratulations.

It only remains for me to express to you our gratitude for the cordiality and distinguished honors with which we have been received. We shall take pleasure in communicating the same to our Government. Our ardent prayer is that your Excellency and your country may henceforth know only peace and prosperity.

To this address the Minister of Foreign Relations thus responded:

SIR: This solemn moment, in which, after such great and strenuous efforts, peace and good understanding are re-established between Mexico and the United States of America, will always be satisfactory to me. This memorable reconciliation will always be considered by the entire Republic as the most efficacious means of restoring its prosperity and grandeur.

Though war always leaves behind such sad memories, you will only leave in Mexico a grateful remembrance of having so effectively intervened for the re-establishment of peace and harmony between the two nations.

It is very pleasing to the President to know that Mr. Clifford will remain in Mexico, and that he will soon discharge the duties of resident minister. The Government of Mexico will hasten to name a minister of the Republic to reside near the Government of the United States of America.

I sincerely desire that you may have a happy return to the United States, and that you may be received there with the sympathies which the circumstance of having been so directly concerned in the re-establishment of peace between the two Republics should excite in your favor.

It only remains to me to manifest to you that the President has been pleased with the forbearance which your Excellencies have manifested in the important conferences which preceded the ratification of the treaty. For my part I shall never forget the cordiality with which in these conferences I have always been treated by you.

A duty now remains to us to fulfill towards those who have so directly intervened in this work of peace and concord, that of consecrating the efforts of our life to affirming and consolidating this peace, in which the policy, the humanity, and the civilization of two great nations are interested.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT, ANNOUNCING TO CONGRESS THE
END OF THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:

I lay before Congress copies of a treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement between the United States and the Mexican Republic, the ratifications of which were duly exchanged at the city of Queretaro, in Mexico, on the 30th day of May, 1848.

The war in which our country was reluctantly involved, in the necessary vindication of the national rights and honor, has been thus terminated; and I congratulate Congress, and our common constituents, upon the restoration of an honorable peace.

The extensive and valuable territories ceded by Mexico to the United States constitute indemnity for the past; and the brilliant achievements and signal success of our arms will be a guaranty of security for the future, by convincing all nations that our rights must be respected. The results of the war with Mexico have given to the United States a national character abroad which our country never before enjoyed. Our power and our resources have become known and are respected throughout the world; and we shall probably be saved from the necessity of engaging in another foreign war for a long series of years.

It is a subject of congratulation, that we have passed through a war of more than two years' duration with the business of the country uninterrupted, with our resources unexhausted, and the public credit unimpaired.

I communicate for the information of Congress the accompanying documents and correspondence relating to the negotiation and ratification of the treaty.

Before the treaty can be fully executed on the part of the United States legislation will be required.

It will be proper to make the necessary appropriations for the payment of the twelve millions of dollars stipulated by the twelfth article to be paid to Mexico in four equal annual instalments. Three millions of dollars were appropriated by the act of March 3, 1847, and that sum was paid to the Mexican government after the exchange of ratifications of the treaty.

The fifth article of the treaty provides that, "in order to designate the boundary line with due precision upon authoritative maps, and to establish upon the ground landmarks which shall show the limits of both republics, as described in the present article, the two governments shall each appoint a commissioner and a surveyor, who, before the expiration of one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, shall meet at the port of San Diego, and proceed to run and mark the said boundary in its whole course to the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte."

It will be necessary that provision should be made by law for the appointment of a commissioner and a surveyor on the part of the United States, to act in conjunction with a commissioner and surveyor appointed by Mexico in executing the stipulations of this article.

It will be proper also to provide by law for the appointment of a "Board of Commissioners," to adjudicate and decide upon all claims of our citizens against the Mexican Government, which by the treaty have been assumed by the United States.

New Mexico and Upper California have been ceded by Mexico to the United States, and now constitute a part of our country. Embracing nearly ten degrees of latitude, lying adjacent to the Oregon territory, and extending from the Pacific Ocean to the Rio Grande, a mean distance of nearly a thousand miles, it would be difficult to estimate the value of these possessions to the

United States. They constitute of themselves a country large enough for a great empire; and their acquisition is second only in importance to that of Louisiana in 1803. Rich in mineral and agricultural resources, with a climate of great salubrity, they embrace the most important ports on the whole Pacific coast of the continent of North America. The possession of the ports of San Diego, Monterey, and the Bay of San Francisco, will enable the United States to command the already valuable and rapidly increasing commerce of the Pacific. The number of our whale-ships alone now employed in that sea exceeds seven hundred, requiring more than twenty thousand seamen to navigate them; while the capital invested in this particular branch of commerce is estimated at not less than forty millions of dollars. The excellent harbors of Upper California will, under our flag, afford security and repose to our commercial marine; and American mechanics will soon furnish ready means of ship-building and repair, which are now so much wanted in that distant sea.

By the acquisition of these possessions we are brought into immediate proximity with the west coast of America, from Cape Horn to the Russian possessions north of Oregon; with the islands of the Pacific Ocean; and, by a direct voyage in steamers, we will be in less than thirty days of Canton, and other ports of China.

In this vast region, whose rich resources are soon to be developed by American energy and enterprise, great must be the augmentation of our commerce; and with it new and profitable demands for mechanical labour in all its branches, and new and valuable markets for our manufactures and agricultural products.

While the war has been conducted with great humanity and forbearance, and with complete success, on our part, the peace has been concluded on terms the most liberal and magnanimous to Mexico. In her hands the territories now ceded had remained, and it is believed would have continued to remain, almost unoccupied, and of little value to her or to any other nation; whilst, as a part of our Union, they will be productive of vast benefits to the United States, to the commercial world, and the general interests of mankind.

The immediate establishment of Territorial Governments, and the extension of our laws over these valuable possessions, are deemed to be not only important, but indispensable to preserve order and the due administration of justice within their limits; to afford protection to the inhabitants, and to facilitate the development of the vast resources and wealth which their acquisition has added to our country.

The war with Mexico having terminated, the power of the Executive to establish or to continue temporary civil governments over these territories, which existed under the laws of nations, whilst they were regarded as conquered provinces in our military occupation, has ceased. By their cession to the United States, Mexico has no longer any power over them; and, until Congress shall act, the inhabitants will be without any organized government. Should they be left in this condition, confusion and anarchy will be likely to prevail.

Foreign commerce to a considerable amount is now carried on in the ports of Upper California, which will require to be regulated by our laws. As soon as our system shall be extended over this commerce, a revenue of considerable amount will be at once collected, and it is not doubted that it will be annually increased. For these and other obvious reasons, I deem it to be my duty earnestly to recommend the action of Congress on the subject at the present session.

In organizing governments over these Territories, fraught with such vast advantages to every portion of our Union, I invoke that spirit of concession, conciliation, and compromise in your deliberations in which the constitution was framed; in which it should be administered; and which is so indispensable to preserve and perpetuate the harmony and union of the States. We

should never forget that this union of confederated states was established and cemented by kindred blood, and by the common toils, sufferings, dangers, and triumphs of all its parts, and has been the ever-augmenting source of our national greatness, and of all our blessings.

There has, perhaps, been no period, since the warning so impressively given to his countrymen by Washington to guard against geographical divisions and sectional parties, which appeals with greater force than the present to the patriotic, soberminded, and reflecting of all parties, and of all sections, of our country. Who can calculate the value of our glorious Union? It is a model and example of free government to all the world; and is the star of hope, and the haven of rest, to the oppressed of every clime. By its preservation we have been rapidly advanced as a nation to a height of strength, power, and happiness without a parallel in the history of the world. As we extend its blessings over new regions, shall we be so unwise as to endanger its existence by geographical divisions and dissensions?

With a view to encourage the early settlement of these distant possessions, I recommend that liberal grants of the public lands be secured to all our citizens who have settled, or may in a limited period settle, within their limits.

In execution of the provisions of the treaty, orders have been issued to our military and naval forces to evacuate without delay the Mexican provinces, cities, towns, and fortified places in our military occupation, and which are not embraced in the territories ceded to the United States. The army is already on its way to the United States. That portion of it, as well regulars as volunteers, who engaged to serve during the war with Mexico, will be discharged as soon as they can be transported or marched to convenient points in the vicinity of their homes. A part of the regular army will be employed in New Mexico and Upper California, to afford protection to the inhabitants, and to guard our interests in these territories.

The old army, as it existed before the commencement of the war with Mexico, especially if authority be given to fill up the rank and file of the several corps to the maximum number authorized during the war, it is believed will be a sufficient force to be retained in service during a period of peace. A few additional officers in the line and staff of the army have been authorized; and these, it is believed, will be necessary in the peace establishment, and should be retained in the service. The number of the general officers may be reduced, as vacancies occur by the casualties of the service, to what it was before the war.

While the people of other countries, who live under forms of government less free than our own, have been for ages oppressed by taxation to support large standing armies in periods of peace, our experience has shown that such establishments are unnecessary in a republic. Our standing army is to be found in the bosom of society. It is composed of free citizens, who are ever ready to take up arms in the service of their country when an emergency requires it. Our experience in the war just closed fully confirms the opinion, that such an army may be raised upon a few weeks' notice, and that our citizen soldiers are equal to any troops in the world. No reason, therefore, is perceived why we should enlarge our land forces, and thereby subject the treasury to an annually increased charge. Sound policy requires that we should avoid the creation of a large standing army in a period of peace. No public exigency requires it. Such armies are not only expensive and unnecessary, but may become dangerous to liberty.

Besides making the necessary legislative provisions for the execution of the treaty, and the establishment of Territorial Governments in the ceded country, we have, upon the restoration of peace, other important duties to perform. Among these I regard none as more important than the adoption of proper measures for the speedy extinguishment of the national debt. It is against

sound policy, and the genius of our institutions, that a public debt should be permitted to exist a day longer than the means of the Treasury will enable the Government to pay it off. We should adhere to the wise policy laid down by President Washington, of "avoiding the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear."

At the commencement of the present Administration, the public debt amounted to seventeen millions seven hundred and eighty-eight thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine dollars and sixty-two cents. In consequence of the war with Mexico it has been necessarily increased, and now amounts to sixty-five millions seven hundred and seventy-eight thousand four hundred and fifty dollars and forty-one cents, including the Stock and Treasury Notes which may yet be issued under the Act of January 28, 1847, and the sixteen million loan recently negotiated under the Act of March 31, 1848.

In addition to the amount of the debt, the treaty stipulates that twelve millions of dollars shall be paid to Mexico, in four equal annual instalments of three millions each; the first of which will fall due on the 30th of May, 1849. The treaty also stipulates that the United States shall "assume and pay" to our own citizens "the claims already liquidated and decided against the Mexican Republic," and all claims not heretofore decided against the Mexican Government," "to an amount not exceeding three and one-quarter million of dollars." The "liquidated" claims of citizens of the United States against Mexico, as decided by the joint Board of Commissioners, under the convention between the United States and Mexico of the 11th of April, 1839, amounted to two millions and twenty-six thousand one hundred and thirty-nine dollars and sixty-eight cents. This sum was payable in twenty equal annual instalments. Three of them have been paid to the claimants by the Mexican Government, and two by the United States, leaving to be paid of the principal of the "liquidated" amount assumed by the United States, the sum of one million five hundred and nineteen thousand six hundred and four dollars and seventy-six cents, together with the interest thereon. These several amounts of "liquidated" and unliquidated claim assumed by the United States, it is believed, may be paid, as they fall due, out of the accruing revenue, without the issue of stock, or the creation of any additional public debt.

I cannot too strongly recommend to Congress the importance of husbanding all our national resources; of limiting the public expenditures to necessary objects; and of applying all the surplus at any time in the Treasury to the redemption of the debt. I recommend that authority be vested in the Executive, by law, to anticipate the period of reimbursement of such portion of the debt as may not be now redeemable, and to purchase it at par, or at the premium which it may command in the market, in all cases in which that authority has not already been granted. A premium has been obtained by the Government on much the larger portion of the loans; and if, when the Government becomes a purchaser of its own stock, it shall command a premium in the market, it will be sound policy to pay it rather than to pay the semi-annual interest upon it. The interest upon the debt, if the outstanding treasury notes shall be funded, from the end of the last fiscal year until it shall fall due and be redeemable, will be very nearly equal to the principal, which must itself be ultimately paid.

Without changing or modifying the present tariff of duties, so great has been the increase of our commerce under its benign operation, that the revenue derived from that source, and from the sales of the public lands, will, it is confidently believed, enable the Government to discharge annually several millions of the debt, and, at the same time, possess the means of meeting necessary appropriations for all other proper objects. Unless Congress shall authorize largely in-

creased expenditures for objects not of absolute necessity, the whole public debt existing before the Mexican war, and that created during its continuance, may be paid off without any increase of taxation on the people long before it will fall due.

Upon the restoration of peace we should adopt a policy suited to a state of peace. In doing this the earliest practicable payment of the public debt should be a cardinal principle of action.

Profiting by the experience of the past, we should avoid the errors into which the country was betrayed shortly after the close of the war with Great Britain in 1815. In a few years after that period a broad and latitudinous construction of the powers of the Federal Government unfortunately received but too much countenance. Though the country was burdened with a heavy public debt, large, and in some instances unnecessary and extravagant, expenditures were authorized by Congress. The consequence was, that the payment of the debt was postponed for more than twenty years; and even then it was only accomplished by the stern will and unbending policy of President Jackson, who made its payment a leading measure of his administration. He resisted the attempts which were made to divert the public money from that great object, and apply it in wasteful and extravagant expenditures for other objects, some of them of more than doubtful constitutional authority and expediency.

If the Government of the United States shall observe a proper economy in its expenditures, and be confined in its action to the conduct of our foreign relations, and to the few general objects of its care enumerated in the constitution, leaving all municipal and local legislation to the States, our greatness as a nation, in moral and physical power, and in wealth and resources, cannot be calculated.

By pursuing this policy, oppressive measures, operating unequally and unjustly upon sections and classes, will be avoided; and the people, having no cause of complaint, will pursue their own interests, under the blessings of equal laws and the protection of a just and paternal government. By abstaining from the exercise of all powers not clearly conferred, the cement of our glorious Union, now numbering thirty States, will be strengthened as we grow in age and increase in population, and our future destiny will be without a parallel or example in the history of nations.

JAMES K. POLK.

WASHINGTON, July 6, 1848.

NEW MEXICO AND CALIFORNIA.

The Speaker laid before the House the following message from the President of the United States.

WASHINGTON, JULY 24, 1848.

To the House of Representatives of the United States:

In answer to the resolutions of the House of Representatives of the 10th instant, requesting information in relation to New Mexico and California, I communicate herewith reports from the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, and the Secretary of the Navy, with the documents which accompany the same. These reports and documents contain information upon the several points of inquiry embraced by the resolutions. "The proper limits and boundaries of New Mexico and California" are delineated in the map referred to in the late treaty with Mexico, an authentic copy of which is herewith transmitted; and all the additional information upon that subject, and also the most reliable information in respect to the population of these respective provinces which is in the possession of the Executive, will be found in the accompanying report of the Secretary of State.

The resolutions request information in regard to the existence of civil governments in New Mexico and California, their "form and character," by "whom instituted," by "what authority," and how they are "maintained and supported."

In my message of December 22, 1846, in answer to a resolution of the House of Representatives calling for information "in relation to the establishment or organization of civil governments in any portion of the territory of Mexico which has or might be taken possession of by the army or navy of the United States," I communicated the orders which had been given to the officers of our army and navy, and stated the general authority upon which temporary military governments had been established over the conquered portions of Mexico then in our military occupation.

The temporary governments authorized were instituted by virtue of the rights of war. The power to declare war against a foreign country, and to prosecute it according to the general laws of war, as sanctioned by civilized nations, it will not be questioned, exists under our constitution. When Congress has declared that war exists with a foreign nation, "the general laws of war apply to our situation," and it becomes the duty of the President, as the constitutional "commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States," to prosecute it.

In prosecuting a foreign war, thus duly declared by Congress, we have the right by "conquest and military occupation" to acquire possession of the territories of the enemy, and during the war to "exercise the fullest rights of sovereignty over it." The sovereignty of the enemy is in such case "suspended," and his laws can "no longer be rightfully enforced" over the conquered territory, or "be obligatory upon the inhabitants who remain and submit to the conquerors." By the surrender the inhabitants "pass under a temporary allegiance" to the conqueror, and are "bound by such laws, and such only, as" he may choose to recognize and impose. "From the nature of the case no other laws could be obligatory upon them; for where there is no protection, or allegiance, or sovereignty, there can be no claim to obedience." These are well established principles of the laws of war, as recognized and practiced by civilized nations, and they have been sanctioned by the highest judicial tribunal of our country.

The orders and instructions issued to the officers of our army and navy, applicable to such portions of the Mexican territory as had been or might be conquered by our arms, were in strict conformity to these principles. They were, indeed, ameliorations of the rigors of war, upon which we might have insisted. They substituted for the harshness of military rule something of the mildness of civil government, and were not only the exercise of no excess of power, but were a relaxation in favor of the peaceable inhabitants of the conquered territory who had submitted to our authority, and were alike politic and humane. It is from the same source of authority that we derive the unquestioned right, after war has been declared by Congress, to blockade the ports and coasts of the enemy, to capture his towns, cities, and provinces, and to levy contributions upon him for the support of our army. Of the same character with these is the right to subject to our temporal military government the conquered territories of our enemy. They are all belligerent rights; and their exercise is as essential to the successful prosecution of a foreign war as the right to fight battles.

New Mexico and Upper California were among the territories conquered and occupied by our forces, and such temporary governments were established over them. They were established by officers of our army and navy in command, in pursuance of the orders and instructions accompanying my message to the House of Representatives of December 22d, 1846. In their form, and detail as at first established, they exceeded in some respects (as was stated in that message) the authority which had been given; and instructions for the correction of the error were issued in dispatches from the War and Navy Departments of the 11th of January, 1847—copies of which are herewith transmitted. They have been

maintained and supported out of the military exactions and contributions levied upon the enemy, and no part of the expense has been paid out of the Treasury of the United States.

In the routine of duty, some of the officers of the army and navy, who first established temporary governments in California and New Mexico, have been succeeded in command by other officers, upon whom like duties have devolved; and the agents employed or designated by them to control the temporary governments have also, in some instances, been superseded by others. Such appointments, for temporary civil duty during our military occupation, were made by the officers in command in the conquered territories respectively.

On the conclusion and exchange of ratifications of a treaty of peace with Mexico, which was proclaimed on the 4th instant, these temporary governments necessarily ceased to exist. In the instructions to establish a temporary government over New Mexico no distinction was made between that and the other provinces of Mexico which might be taken and held in our military occupation.

The Province of New Mexico, according to its ancient boundaries, as claimed by Mexico, lies on both sides of the Rio Grande. That part of it on the east of that river was in dispute when the war between the United States and Mexico commenced. Texas, by a successful revolution in April, 1836, achieved and subsequently maintained her independence. By an act of the Congress of Texas, passed in December, 1836, her western boundary was declared to be the Rio Grande, from its mouth to its source, and thence due north to the forty-second degree of north latitude. Though the Republic of Texas, by many acts of sovereignty which she exerted and exercised, some of which were stated in my annual message of December 1846, had established her clear title to the country west of the Nueces, and bordering on that part of the Rio Grande which lies below the Province of New Mexico, she had never conquered or reduced to actual possession, and brought under her government and laws, that part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande which she claimed to be within her limits. On the breaking out of the war, we found Mexico in possession of this disputed territory. As our army approached Santa Fe, (the capital of New Mexico,) it was found to be held by a governor under Mexican authority, and an armed force collected to resist our advance. The inhabitants were Mexicans, acknowledging allegiance to Mexico. The boundary in dispute was the line between the two countries engaged in actual war, and the settlement of it of necessity depended on a treaty of peace. Finding the Mexican authorities and people in possession, our forces conquered them, and extended military rule over them and the territory which they actually occupied, in lieu of the sovereignty which was displaced. It was not possible to disturb or change the practical boundary line in the midst of the war, when no negotiation for its adjustment could be opened, and when Texas was not present by her constituted authorities to establish and maintain government over a hostile Mexican population, who acknowledged no allegiance to her. There was, therefore, no alternative left but to establish and maintain military rule during the war over the conquered people in the disputed territory who had submitted to our arms, or to forbear the exercise of our belligerent rights, and leave them in a state of anarchy and without control.

Whether the country in dispute rightfully belonged to Mexico or to Texas, it was our right in the first case, and our duty as well as our right in the latter, to conquer and hold it. Whilst this territory was in our possession as conquerors, with a population hostile to the United States, which more than once broke out in open insurrection, it was our unquestionable duty to continue our military occupation of it until the conclusion of the war, and to establish over it military government, necessary for our own security, as well as for the protection of the conquered people.

By the joint resolution of Congress of March 1, 1845, "for annexing Texas

to the United States," the "adjustment of all questions of boundary which may arise with other Governments" was reserved to this Government. When the conquest of New Mexico was consummated by our arms the question of boundary remained still unadjusted. Until the exchange of the ratifications of the late treaty, New Mexico never became an undisputed portion of the United States; and it would therefore have been premature to deliver over to Texas that portion of it, on the east side of the Rio Grande, to which she asserted a claim. However just the right of Texas may have been to it, that right had never been reduced into her possession, and it was contested by Mexico.

By the cession of the whole of New Mexico on both sides of the Rio Grande to the United States, the question of disputed boundary, so far as Mexico is concerned, has been settled; leaving the question as to the true limits of Texas, in New Mexico, to be adjusted between that State and the United States. Under the circumstances existing during the pendency of the war, and while the whole of New Mexico, as claimed by our enemy, was in our military occupation, I was not unmindful of the rights of Texas to that portion of it which she claimed to be within her limits. In answer to a letter from the Governor of Texas, dated on the 4th of January, 1847, the Secretary of State, by my direction, informed him, in a letter of the 12th of February, 1847, that in the President's annual message of December, 1846, "You have already perceived that New Mexico is at present in the temporary occupation of the troops of the United States, and the government over it is military in its character. It is merely such a government as must exist under the laws of nations and of war, to preserve order and protect the rights of the inhabitants, and will cease on the conclusion of a treaty of peace with Mexico. Nothing, therefore, can be more certain than that this temporary Government, resulting from necessity, can never injuriously affect the right which the President believes to be justly asserted by Texas to the whole territory on this side of the Rio Grande, whenever the Mexican claim to it shall have been extinguished by treaty. But this is a subject which more properly belongs to the legislative than the executive branch of the Government."

The result of the whole is, that Texas had asserted a right to that part of New Mexico east of the Rio Grande, which is believed, under the acts of Congress for the annexation and admission of Texas into the Union as a State, and under the constitution and laws of Texas, to be well founded; but this right had never been reduced to her actual possession and occupancy. The General Government, possessing exclusively the war-making power, had the right to take military possession of this disputed territory; and until the title to it was perfected by a treaty of peace it was their duty to hold it, and to establish a temporary military government over it for the preservation of the conquest itself, the safety of our army, and the security of the conquered inhabitants.

The resolutions further request information whether any persons have been tried and condemned for "treason against the United States in that part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande since the same has been in the occupancy of our army," and, if so, before "what tribunal," and "by what authority of law such tribunal was established?" It appears that, after the territory in question was "in the occupancy of our army," some of the conquered Mexican inhabitants, who had at first submitted to our authority, broke out in open insurrection, murdering our soldiers and citizens, and committing other atrocious crimes. Some of the principal offenders, who were apprehended, were tried and condemned by a tribunal invested with civil and criminal jurisdiction, which had been established in the conquered country by the military officer in command. That the offenders deserved the punishment inflicted upon them there is no reason to doubt; and the error in the proceedings against them consisted in designating and describing their crimes as "treason against the United States." This error was pointed out, and its recurrence thereby prevented, by the Secretary of War, in a dispatch to the officer in command in New Mexico, dated on

the 26th of June, 1847, a copy of which, together with copies of all communications relating to the subject which have been received at the War Departments, are herewith transmitted.

The resolutions call for information in relation to the quantity of public lands acquired within the ceded territory, and "how much of the same is within the boundaries of Texas, as defined by the act of the Congress of the republic of Texas of the 19th day of December, 1836." No means of making an accurate estimate on the subject is in the possession of the Executive Department. The information which is possessed will be found in the accompanying report of the Secretary of the Treasury.

The country ceded to the United States lying west of the Rio Grande, and to which Texas has no title, is estimated by the Commissioner of the General Land Office to contain 526,078 square miles, or 366,689,920 acres.

The period since the exchange of ratifications of the treaty has been too short to enable the Government to have access to, or to procure abstracts or copies of, the land titles issued by Spain or by the republic of Mexico. Steps will be taken to procure this information at the earliest practicable period. It is estimated, as appears from the accompanying report of the Secretary of the Treasury, that much the larger portion of the land within the territories ceded remains vacant and unappropriated, and will be subject to be disposed of by the United States. Indeed, a very considerable portion of the land embraced in the cession, it is believed, has been disposed of or granted either by Spain or Mexico.

What amount of money the United States may be able to realize from the sales of these vacant lands must be uncertain; but it is confidently believed that, with prudent management, after making liberal grants to emigrants and settlers, it will exceed the cost of the war and all the expenses to which we have been subjected in acquiring it.

The resolutions also call for the "evidence, or any part thereof," that the "extensive and valuable territories ceded by Mexico to the United States constitute indemnity for the past."

The immense value of the ceded country does not consist alone in the amount of money for which the public lands may be sold. If not a dollar could be realized from the sale of these lands, the cession of the jurisdiction over the country, and the fact that it has become a part of our Union, and cannot be made subject to European power, constitute ample "indemnity for the past," in the immense value and advantages which its acquisition must give to the commercial, navigating, manufacturing, and agricultural interests of our country.

The value of the public lands embraced within the limits of the ceded territory, great as that value may be, is far less important to the people of the United States than the sovereignty over the country. Most of our States contain no public lands owned by the United States; and yet the sovereignty and jurisdiction over them is of incalculable importance to the nation. In the State of New York the United States is the owner of no public lands, and yet two-thirds of our whole revenue is collected at the great port of that State, and within her limits is found about one-seventh of our entire population. Although none of the future cities on our coast of California may ever rival the city of New York in wealth, population, and business, yet that important cities will grow up on the magnificent harbors of that coast, with a rapidly increasing population, and yielding a large revenue, would seem to be certain. By the possession of the safe and capacious harbors on the California coast we shall have great advantages in securing the rich commerce of the East, and shall thus obtain for our products new and increased markets, and greatly enlarge our coasting and foreign trade, as well as augment our tonnage and revenue.

These great advantages, far more than the simple value of the public lands in the ceded territory, "constitute our indemnity for the past."

JAMES K. POLK.

APPENDIX

OF

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS ACCOMPANYING HISTORICAL REVIEW OF 1846 AND 1847.

(Continued from page 84, No. 1.)

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY, *Vera Cruz*, March 30, 1847.

GENERAL ORDERS, No. 80.

The capture of this well-fortified city, the emporium of Mexican commerce, with the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa, the enemy's principal fortress, with 5,000 prisoners and as many stands of arms, 400 pieces of ordnance, and a large quantity of ordnance stores, has added to the glory of the American arms acquired elsewhere in this war, and cannot fail to contribute powerfully to an early peace—so much desired by the United States.

These important achievements have established a new base, and opened a shorter and a better line of operations upon the enemy's capital and centre of resources.

The general-in-chief congratulates the army he has the honor personally to command upon this brilliant opening of a new campaign, and tenders on the part of the United States immediate thanks to all the corps—regular and volunteer, including a detachment of marines, under Captain Edson—which formed the line of investment and prosecuted the siege to its happy conclusion. The troops have borne the heaviest labors in camp and in trenches without failure or murmur, amidst sand-storms of distressing frequency and violence, skirmishes by day and night, and under the incessant fire of the enemy's heavy batteries of the city and castle. The steadiness and cheerfulness of officers and men; under the circumstances, are worthy of all praise.

The general-in-chief sincerely regrets that he cannot give the names of hundreds, or rather thousands, to whom particular thanks are due on the occasion. He can only enumerate the few who are isolated by rank or position as well as by noble services. Of this class he is happy to name Brevet Brigadier-General Worth (now Brevet Major-General), and Brigadier-General Twiggs, commanding the regular brigades; Major General Patterson (second in command) and his three Brigadier Generals, Pillow, Quitman, and Shields, of the volunteer division; Colonel Harney, commander of the regular cavalry; Colonel Totten, chief of engineers; Colonel Bankhead, chief of artillery and commander of the batteries, ably assisted in succession by other field officers of artillery; Captain Huger, acting chief of ordnance, much at the batteries, and assisted ably in supplying them by Captains Cross and Irwin, both of the quartermaster's department; Lieutenant Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector general; Major Turnbull, acting chief of topographical engineers; Major McRee, acting chief of the quartermaster's department; Captain Grayson, acting chief of the commissariat; Surgeon General Lawson; and the personal staff of the general-in-chief—Lieutenants H. L. Scott, Williams, Scammon, and Lay—with the occasional aid of

Captains Lee and Johnson, of the engineers and topographical engineers, and Captain Munroe, acting assistant inspector general.

To the commissioners—Brevet Major-General Worth, Brigadier-General Pillow, and Colonel Totten, including Captain Aulick, of the navy—who so ably negotiated and arranged the terms of capitulation with the enemy's commissioners, great credit is also severally due in that distinct capacity.

Thanks higher than those of the general-in-chief have also been earned by the entire home squadron, under the successive orders of Commodores Connor and Perry, for prompt, cheerful, and able assistance from the arrival of the army off this coast. Besides landing troops and supplies, and the strict blockade of this port, the smaller vessels, detached by Commodore Perry, under the immediate command of Captain Tatnall, joined for a time in the attack upon the city, at the imminent risk of being sunk by the fire of the castle; and the land battery No. 5, (called the naval,) which followed Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4, (served by the army,) at the end of two days was exclusively, after being prepared by the engineers and troops of the army, armed, manned, and commanded out of the squadron. This battery, in the successive tours of the gallant Captains Aulick and Mayo, proved itself highly effective.

By command of Major-General Scott.

H. L. SCOTT, *A. A. A. G.*

CERRO GORDO.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,

Plan del Rio, 50 miles from Vera Cruz, April 19, 1847.

SIR:—The plan of attack, sketched in general orders No. 111, herewith, was finely executed by this gallant army before two o'clock, P. M., yesterday. We are quite embarrassed with the results of victory—prisoners of war, heavy ordnance, field batteries, small arms, and accoutrements. About 3,000 men laid down their arms, with the usual proportion of field and company officers, besides five generals, several of them of great distinction. Pinson, Jarrero, La Vega, Noriega, and Obando. A sixth general, Vasquez, was killed in defending the battery (tower) in the rear of the whole Mexican Army, the capture of which gave us those glorious results.

Our loss, though comparatively small in numbers, has been serious. Brigadier-General Shields, a commander of activity, zeal, and talent, is, I fear, if not dead, mortally wounded. He is some five miles from me at the moment. The field of operations covered many miles, broken by mountains and deep chasms, and I have not a report as yet from any division or brigade. Twigg's division, followed by Shields's (now Colonel Baker's) brigade, is now at or near Xalapa, and Worth's division is en route thither; all pursuing, with good results, as I learn, that part of the Mexican army, perhaps six or seven thousand men, who fled before our right had carried the tower, and gained the Xalapa road. Pillow's brigade alone is near me at this depot of wounded, sick, and prisoners, and I have time only to give from him the names of 1st Lieutenant F. B. Nelson, and 2d C. G. Gill, both of the 2d Tennessee foot, (Haskell's regiment,) among the killed; and in the brigade, 106 of all ranks killed or wounded. Among the latter, the gallant brigadier-general himself has a smart wound in the arm, but not disabled, and Major R. Farqueson, 2d Tennessee; Captain H. F. Murray, 2d Lieutenant G. T. Sutherland, 1st Lieutenant W. P. Hale, (adjutant,) all of the same regiment, severely, and 1st Lieutenant W. Yearwood, mortally wounded. And I know, from personal observation on the ground, that 1st Lieutenant Ewell, of the rifles, if not now dead, was mortally wounded in entering, sword in hand, the entrenchments around the captured tower. Second Lieutenant Derby, topographical engineers, I also saw at the same place, severely wounded, and Captain Patten, 2d United States infantry, lost his right hand. Major Sumner, 2d United States dragoons, was slightly wounded the day before, and Captain Johnson, topographical engineers, (now

lieutenant-colonel of infantry,) was very severely wounded, some days earlier, while reconnoitering. I must not omit to add that Captain Mason and 2d Lieutenant Davis, both of the rifles, were among the very severely wounded in storming the same tower. I estimate our total loss in killed and wounded may be about 250, and that of the enemy 350. In the pursuit towards Xalapa, (25 miles hence,) I learn we have added much to the enemy's loss in prisoners, killed, and wounded. In fact, I suppose his retreating army to be nearly disorganized; and hence my haste to follow, in an hour or two, to profit by events.

In this hurried and imperfect report I must not omit to say that Brigadier-General Twiggs, in passing the mountain range beyond Cerro Gordo, crowned with the tower, detached from his division, as I suggested the day before, a strong force to carry that height, which commanded the Xalapa road at the foot, and could not fail, if carried, to cut off the whole or any part of the enemy's forces from a retreat in any direction. A portion of the 1st artillery, under the often-distinguished Brevet-Colonel Childs, the 3d infantry, under Captain Alexander, the 7th infantry, under Lieutenant-Colonel Plympton, and the rifles, under Major Loring, all under the temporary command of Colonel Harney, 2d dragoons, during the confinement to his bed of Brevet Brigadier-General P. F. Smith, composed that detachment. The style of execution, which I had the pleasure to witness, was most brilliant and decisive. The brigade ascended the long and difficult slope of Cerro Gordo, without shelter, and under the tremendous fire of artillery and musketry, with the utmost steadiness, reached the breastworks, drove the enemy from them, planted the colors of the 1st artillery, 3d and 7th infantry—the enemy's flag still flying—and, after some minutes of sharp firing, finished the conquest with the bayonet.

It is a most pleasing duty to say that the highest praise is due to Harney, Childs, Plympton, Loring, Alexander, their gallant officers and men, for this brilliant service, independent of the great results which soon followed.

Worth's division of regulars coming up at this time, he detached Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel P. F. Smith, with his light battalion, to support the assault, but not in time. The general, reaching the tower a few minutes before, and observing a white flag displayed from the nearest portion of the enemy towards the batteries below, sent out Colonels Harney and Childs to hold a parley. The surrender followed in an hour or two.

Major-General Patterson left a sick bed to share in the dangers and fatigues of the day; and after the surrender, went forward to command the advanced forces towards Xalapa.

Brigadier-General Pillow and his brigade twice assaulted with great daring the enemy's line of batteries on our left; and, though without success, they contributed much to distract and dismay their immediate opponents.

President Santa Anna, with Generals Canalizo and Almonte, and some six or eight thousand men, escaped towards Xalapa just before Cerro Gordo was carried, and before Twiggs' division reached the national road above.

I have determined to parole the prisoners—officers and men—as I have not the means of feeding them here beyond to-day, and cannot afford to detach a heavy body of horse and foot, with wagons, to accompany them to Vera Cruz. Our baggage train, though increasing, is not yet half large enough to give an assured progress to this army. Besides, a greater number of prisoners would probably escape from the escort in the long and deep sandy road without subsistence—ten to one—than we shall find again out of the same body of men in the ranks opposed to us. Not one of the Vera Cruz prisoners is believed to have been in the lines of Cerro Gordo. Some six of the officers, highest in rank, refuse to give their paroles, except to go to Vera Cruz, and thence, perhaps, to the United States.

The small arms and their accoutrements, being of no value to our army here or at home, I have ordered them to be destroyed; for we have not the means

of transporting them. I am also somewhat embarrassed with the — pieces of artillery—all bronze—which we have captured. It would take a brigade and half the mules of this army to transport them fifty miles. A field battery I shall take for service with the army; but the heavy metal must be collected and left here for the present. We have our own siege-train and the proper carriages with us.

Being much occupied with the prisoners and all the details of a forward movement, besides looking to the supplies which are to follow from Vera Cruz, I have time to add no more—intending to be at Xalapa early to-morrow. We shall not probably again meet with serious opposition this side of Perote—certainly not, unless delayed by the want of the means of transportation.

I have the honor to remain, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

P. S.—I invite attention to the accompanying letter to President Santa Anna, taken in his carriage yesterday; also to his proclamation, issued on hearing that we had captured Vera Cruz, &c., in which he says: "If the enemy advance one step more, the national independence will be buried in the abyss of the past." We have taken that step.
W. S.

I make a second postscript, to say there is some hope, I am happy to learn, that General Shields may survive his wounds.

One of the principal motives for parolling the prisoners of war is to diminish the resistance of other garrisons in our march.
W. S.

Hon. W. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY, *Plan del Rio, April 17, 1847.*

GENERAL ORDERS, No. 111.

The enemy's whole line of entrenchments and batteries will be attacked in front, and at the same time turned, early in the day to-morrow—probably before 10 o'clock, A. M.

The second (Twiggs's) division of regulars is already advanced within easy turning distance towards the enemy's left. That division has instructions to move forward before daylight to-morrow, and take up position across the national road in the enemy's rear, so as to cut off a retreat towards Jalapa. It may be reinforced to-day, if unexpectedly attacked in force, by regiments—one or two—taken from Shields's brigade of volunteers. If not, the two volunteer regiments will march for that purpose at daylight to-morrow morning, under Brigadier-General Shields, who will report to Brigadier-General Twiggs on getting up with him, or to the general-in chief, if he be in advance.

The remaining regiment of that volunteer brigade will receive instructions in the course of this day.

The first division of regulars (Worth's) will follow the movement against the enemy's left at sunrise to-morrow morning.

As already arranged, Brigadier-General Pillow's brigade will march at 6 o'clock to-morrow morning along the route he has carefully reconnoitered, and stand ready, as soon as he hears the report of arms on our right, or sooner, if circumstances should favor him, to pierce the enemy's line of batteries at such point—the nearer to the river the better—as he may select. Once in the rear of that line, he will turn to the right or left, or both, and attack the batteries in reverse, or, if abandoned, he will pursue the enemy with vigor until further orders.

Wall's field battery and the cavalry will be held in reserve on the national road, a little out of view and range of the enemy's batteries. They will take up that position at nine o'clock in the morning.

The enemy's batteries being carried or abandoned, all our divisions and corps will pursue with vigor.

This pursuit may be continued many miles, until stopped by darkness or for-

tified positions, towards Jalapa. Consequently, the body of the army will not return to this encampment; but be followed to-morrow afternoon or early the next morning by the baggage trains of the several corps. For this purpose, the feebler officers and men of each corps will be left to guard its camp and effects, and to load up the latter in the wagons of the corps. A commander of the present encampment will be designated in the course of this day.

As soon as it shall be known that the enemy's works have been carried, or that the general pursuit has been commenced, one wagon for each regiment and battery, and one for the cavalry, will follow the movement, to receive, under the direction of medical officers, the wounded and disabled, who will be brought back to this place for treatment in general hospital.

The surgeon general will organize this important service, and designate that hospital as well as the medical officers to be left at it.

Every man who marches out to attack or pursue the enemy will take the usual allowance of ammunition, and subsistence for at least two days.

By command of Major-General SCOTT. H. L. SCOTT, *A. A. A. General.*

Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, President ad interim of the Mexican Republic, to his compatriots.

MEXICANS:—Vera Cruz is already in the power of the enemy. It has succumbed—not under the influence of American valor, nor can it even be said that it has fallen under the impulses of their good fortune. To our shame be it said, we ourselves have produced this deplorable misfortune by our own interminable discord.

The truth is due to you from the government; you are the arbiters of the fate of our country. If our country is to be defended, it will be you who will stop the triumphant march of the enemy who occupies Vera Cruz. If the enemy advance one step more, the national independence will be buried in the abyss of the past.

I am resolved to go out and encounter the enemy. What is life worth, ennobled by the national gratitude, if the country suffers under a censure, the stain of which will rebound upon the forehead of every Mexican.

My duty is to sacrifice myself, and I will know how to fulfil it. Perhaps the American hosts may proudly tread the imperial capital of Azteca. I will never witness such an opprobrium, for I am decided first to die fighting!

The momentous crisis has at length arrived to the Mexican republic. It is as glorious to die fighting as it is infamous to declare one's self conquered without a struggle, and by an enemy whose rapacity is as far removed from valor as from generosity.

Mexicans! you have a religion—protect it! You have honor—then free yourselves from infamy! You love your wives, your children—then liberate them from American brutality! But it must be action—not vain entreaty nor barren desires—with which the enemy must be opposed. The national cause is infinitely just, although God appears to have abandoned us; but His ire will be appeased when we present, as an expiation of our errors, the sentiments of true patriotism and of a sincere union. Thus the Almighty will bless our efforts, and we will be invincible! for against the decision of eight millions of Mexicans, of what avail are the efforts of eight or ten millions of Americans, when opposed by the fiat of Divine justice.

Perhaps I speak to you for the last time! I pray you listen to me! Do not vacillate between death and slavery; and if the enemy conquer you, at least they will respect the heroism of your resistance. It is now time that the common defence should alone occupy your thoughts! The hour of sacrifice has sounded its approach! Awaken! A tomb opens itself at your feet! Conquer a laurel to repose on it!

The nation has not yet lost its vitality. I swear to you I will answer for the triumph of Mexico, if unanimous and sincere efforts on your part second my desires. Happy will have been—a thousand times happy—the unfortunate event at Vera Cruz, if the destruction of that city may have served to infuse into the Mexican breast the dignity and the generous ardor of a true patriotism! Thus will the country have been indubitably saved; but if the country succumb, she will bequeath her opprobrium and her censure to those egotists who were not ready to defend her—to those who traitorously pursued their private turmoils to trample upon the national banner!

Mexicans! your fate is the fate of the nation! Not the Americans, but you, will decide her destiny! Vera Cruz calls for vengeance—follow me, and wash out the stain of her dishonor!

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA.

MEXICO, *March 31st, 1847.*

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No. 4.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY, *Jalapa, April 23, 1847.*

SIR:—In forwarding the reports of commanders which detail the operations of their several corps against the Mexican lines at Cerro Gordo, I shall present, in continuation of my former report, but an outline of the affair, and while adopting heartily their commendations of the ardor and efficiency of individuals, I shall mention by name only those who figure prominently, or from position, could not be included in those sub-reports.

The field sketch herewith, indicates the positions of the two armies. The *tierra caliente*, or low level, terminates at *Plan del Rio*, the site of the American camp, from which the road ascends immediately in a long circuit among lofty hills, whose commanding points had all been fortified and garrisoned by the enemy. His right, entrenched, rested on a precipice overhanging an impassable ravine that forms the bed of the stream; and his entrenchments extended continuously to the road, on which was placed a formidable battery. On the other side, the lofty and difficult height of Cerro Gordo commanded the approaches in all directions. The main body of the Mexican army was encamped on level ground, with a battery of five pieces, half a mile in rear of that height towards Jalapa.

Resolving, if possible, to turn the enemy's left, and attack in rear, while menacing or engaging his front, I caused daily reconnoissances to be pushed, with the view of finding a route for a force to debouch on the Jalapa road, and cut off retreat.

The reconnoissance begun by Lieutenant Beauregard, was continued by Captain Lee, engineers, and a road made along difficult slopes and over chasms—out of the enemy's view, though reached by his fire when discovered—until, arriving at the Mexican lines, further reconnoissance became impossible without an action. The desired point of debouche, the Jalapa road, was not therefore reached, though believed to be within easy distance; and to gain that point, it now became necessary to carry the height of Cerro Gordo. The dispositions in my plan of battle—general orders No. 111, heretofore inclosed—were accordingly made.

Twiggs' division, reinforced by Shields' brigade of volunteers, was thrown into position on the 17th, and was, of necessity, drawn into action in taking up the ground for its bivouack and the opposing height for our heavy battery. It will be seen that many of our officers and men were killed or wounded in this sharp combat—handsomely commenced by a company of the 7th infantry under Brevet First Lieutenant Gardner, who is highly praised by all his commanders for signal services. Colonel Harney coming up with the rifle regiment and first artillery (also parts of his brigade), brushed away the enemy and occupied the height—on which, in the night, was placed a battery of one 24-pounder and

two 24-pound howitzers, under the superintendence of Captain Lee, engineers, and Lieutenant Hagner, ordnance. These guns opened next morning, and were served with effect by Captain Steptoe and Lieutenant Brown, 3d artillery, Lieutenant Hagner, (ordnance,) and Lieutenant Seymour, 1st artillery.

The same night, with extreme toil and difficulty, under the superintendence of Lieutenant Tower, engineers, and Lieutenant Laidley, ordnance, an eight-inch howitzer was put in position across the river and opposite to the enemy's right battery. A detachment of four companies, under Major Burnham, New York volunteers, performed this creditable service, which enabled Lieutenant Ripley, 2d artillery, in charge of the piece, to open a timely fire in that quarter.

Early on the 18th, the columns moved to the general attack, and our success was speedy and decisive. Pillow's brigade, assaulting the right of the entrenchments, although compelled to retire, had the effect I have heretofore stated. Twiggs' division, storming the strong and vital point of Cerro Gordo, pierced the centre, gained command of all of the entrenchments, and cut them off from support. As our infantry (Colonel Riley's brigade) pushed on against the main body of the enemy, the guns of their own fort were rapidly turned to play on that force, (under the immediate command of General Santa Anna,) who fled in confusion. Shields' brigade, bravely assaulting the left, carried the rear battery (five guns) on the Jalapa road, and aided materially in completing the rout of the enemy.

The part taken by the remainder of our forces, held in reserve to support and pursue, has already been noticed.

The moment the fate of the day was decided, the cavalry, and Taylor's and Wall's field batteries, were pushed on towards Jalapa in advance of the pursuing column of infantry—Twiggs' division and the brigade of Shields, (now under Colonel Baker)—and Major-General Patterson was sent to take command of them. In the hot pursuit many Mexicans were captured or slain before our men and horses were exhausted by the heat and distance.

The rout proves to have been complete—the retreating army, except a small body of cavalry, being dispersed and utterly disorganized. The immediate consequences have been our possession of this important city, the abandonment of the works and artillery at La Hoya, the next formidable pass between Vera Cruz and the capital, and the prompt occupation by Worth's division of the fortress of Perote, (second only to San Juan d'Ulloa,) with its extensive armament of sixty-six guns and mortars, and its large supplies of *materiel*. To General Worth's report, annexed, I refer for details.

I have heretofore endeavored to do justice to the skill and courage with which the attack on the height of Cerro Gordo was directed and executed, naming the regiments most distinguished, and their commanders, under the lead of Colonel Harney. Lieutenant G. W. Smith led the engineer company as part of the storming force, and is noticed with distinction.

The reports of this assault make favorable mention of many, in which I can well concur, having witnessed the daring advance and perfect steadiness of the whole. Besides those already named, Lieutenant Brooks, 3d infantry, Lieutenant Macdonald, 3d dragoons, Lieutenant Vandorn, 7th infantry—all acting staff officers—Captain Magruder, 1st artillery, and Lieutenant Gardner, 7th infantry, seem to have won especial praise.

Colonel Riley's brigade and Talcott's rocket and howitzer battery, were engaged on and about the heights, and bore an active part.

The brigade so gallantly led by General Shields, and, after his fall, by Colonel Baker, deserves high commendation for its fine behavior and success. Colonels Foreman and Burnett, and Major Harris, commanded the regiments; Lieutenant Hammond, 3d artillery, and Lieutenant Davis, Illinois volunteers, constituted the brigade staff. These operations, hid from my view by intervening hills, were not fully known when my first report was hastily written.

Brigadier-General Twiggs, who was in the immediate command of all the advanced forces, has earned high credit by his judgment, spirit and energy.

The conduct of Colonels Campbell, Haskell, and Wynkoop, commanding the regiments of Pillow's brigade, is reported in terms of strong approbation by Major-General Patterson. I recommend for a commission, Quartermaster Sergeant Henry, of the 7th infantry, (already known to the army for intrepidity on former occasions.) who hauled down the national standard of the Mexican fort.

In expressing my indebtedness for able assistance to Lieutenant-Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector-general, to Majors Smith and Turnbull, the respective chiefs of engineers and topographical engineers—to their assistants, Lieutenants Mason, Beauregard, Stevens, Tower, G. W. Smith, McClellan, engineers, and Lieutenants Derby and Hardcastle, topographical engineers—to Captain Allen, chief quartermaster, and Lieutenant Blair, chief commissary—and to Lieutenants Hagner and Laidley, ordnance—all actively employed—I am impelled to make special mention of the services of Captain R. E. Lee, engineers. This officer, greatly distinguished at the siege of Vera Cruz, was again indefatigable, during these operations, in reconnoissances as daring, as laborious, and of the utmost value. Nor was he less conspicuous in planting batteries, and in conducting columns to their stations under the heavy fire of the enemy.

My personal staff, Lieutenants Scott, Williams and Lay, and Major Van Buren, who volunteered for the occasion, gave me zealous and efficient assistance.

Our whole force present, in action and in reserve, was 8,500; the enemy is estimated at 12,000, or more. About 3,000 prisoners, 4 or 5,000 stand of arms, and 43 pieces of artillery were taken. By the accompanying return, I regret to find our loss more severe than at first supposed, amounting in the two days to 33 officers and 398 men—in all 431, of whom 63 were killed. The enemy's loss is computed to be from 1,000 to 1,200.

I am happy in communicating strong hopes for the recovery of the gallant General Shields, who is so much improved as to have been brought to this place.

Appended to this report are the following papers:

- A.—General return by name of killed and wounded.
- B.—Copies of report of Lieutenant-Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector-general (of prisoners taken), and accompanying papers.
- C.—Report of Brigadier-General Twiggs, and sub-reports.
- D.—Report of Major-General Patterson, and reports of brigade commanders.
- E.—Copy of report of Brigadier-General Worth, announcing the occupation by his division of the castle and town of Perote, with an inventory of ordnance there found.

I have the honor to remain, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,

WINFIELD SCOTT.

Hon. WM. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

CAPTURE OF PEROTE.

HEAD-QUARTERS, 1ST DIVISION, *Perote, April 22, 1847.*

SIR:—I have the honor to report for information of the general-in-chief, that my division occupied the castle and town of Perote at 12, M., to-day, without resistance—the enemy having withdrawn the night before last, and yesterday evening—leaving Colonel Velasquez, as commissioner on behalf of the Mexican government, to turn over the armament of the castle, consisting of fifty-four guns and mortars, iron and bronze, of various calibres, in good service condition, eleven thousand and sixty-five cannon balls, fourteen thousand three hundred bombs and hand grenades, and five hundred muskets.

In the retreat hence, the enemy carried away no *materiel* of war. No force has passed, embodied, except some 3,000 cavalry, in deplorable plight, headed by the recreant Ampudia. The infantry, some two thousand, passed in small bodies, generally without arms. The few having any, sold them, whenever a purchaser could be found, for two or three rials. The rout and panic is com-

plete, and the way opened. A stand *may* be made at Puebla, but doubted. These are the fruits of the victory at Cerro Gordo.

I have received already some 300 cargoes (6 bushels each) of corn, perhaps 50 (300 lbs. each) of flour; and much more may be had, both here and at Tenestepic, two leagues in advance, whither I sent a detachment of cavalry to-night; all at fair prices. The alcaldes of Perote and the neighboring haciendas are in full activity, and manifest laudable zeal, assisted by the padres, in aiding us. At a brief interview, I fully possessed them of the general's sentiments in all respects.

The current of disfavor seems strongly against Santa Anna, whose whereabouts is not known; supposed to be in the mountains.

I pray the general may have the means of moving rapidly; while the terror is on, our rear may be left with slight guards.

It is not doubted many mules may be obtained hereabouts. Shall such as are procured be sent to Jalapa, or retained here? I engaged some few *en route*, and ordered them to the rear.

The fortress affords quarters for 2,000 troops and their officers, with ample store-houses, hospitals, &c. &c., and a supply of good water within the walls.

The Generals Landero and Morales, confined in Perote for the affair at Vera Cruz, as also some American prisoners, were allowed to go at large on the retirement of the garrison. I have several of the latter belonging to the South Carolina regiment, captured near Vera Cruz. Lieutenant Rogers, of the navy, had been previously sent to the capital.

I have the honor, &c.,

W. J. WORTH,

Brevet Major-General commanding.

To Captain H. L. SCOTT, *A. A. A. General, Head-quarters, Jalapa.*

[Translated copy.]

FORT "SAN CARLOS DE PEROTE."

An inventory of the artillery, arms, and munitions, in the above-mentioned fortress:

2	cannons, of bronze, 8-pounders,			
2	"	"	6	"
2	"	"	6	chambered.
2	"	"	4	"
5	"	"	4	mountain.
6	"	"	3	"
3	"	"	3½	"
3	"	"	16	"
6	"	"	12	"
7	"	"	8	"
2	"	"	7½	"
4	"	"	6	"
10	"	"	4	"
1	mortar of bronze, 9-inch.			
1	"	"	7½	"
1	"	"	7	"
2	stone mortars, of bronze, 18¾-inch.			
2	"	"	12	"
1	howitzer,		8	"
2	"		7	"
2	"			mountain.
790	cannon balls, of iron, for 12-pounders.			
2066	"	"	8	"
3902	"	"	6	"
2465	"	"	6	"
1008	"	"	4	strapped.

700	cannon balls, bronze, for 6-pounders.
155	" " " 6 " strapped.
81	" " " 3 "
48	canister shot, for 16-pounders.
237	" " " 3 "
322	shells, of iron, of 14 inches, not filled.
523	" " " 9 " "
68	" bronze 9 " "
581	grenades, of iron, 7 " "
470	" " " 3 hand.
9948	" " " 2 " 9 lines, hand.
2413	" " " 2 " " " filled.
39	woollen cartridge bags, for 16-pounders, empty.
246	" " " " 12 " "
16	" " " " 8 " "
300	" " " " 6 " "
300	" " " " 4 " "
578	linen " " 16 " "
550	" " " " 12 " "
400	" " " " 8 " "
80	" " " " 9-inch mortars.
200	" cartridge bags, for stone mortars, 18 $\frac{1}{2}$.
200	English muskets.
5200	gun flints.
2700	musket cartridges, blank.
30	" " " ball.
120	cartridges, for cannon.
9	chests of carpenters' and blacksmiths' tools, &c.
300	muskets, unserviceable.
1	desk for archives.

PEROTE, April 22d, 1847.

JOSE RAFAEL VELASQUES,
Ordnance Sergeant.
VELASQUEZ,
Colonel of Artillery.

Approved:

Verified, April 22d, 1847:

W. C. DE HART, *Captain 2d Artillery.*
R. C. LEE, *Captain Engineers.*

Endorsed: Inventory of ordnance and ordnance stores found in the castle of Perote, when taken possession of by the forces of the United States, April 22d, 1847.

W. J. WORTH,

Brevet Major-General commanding.

In addition, there is an ample supply of laboratory and mechanical tools, for wood and iron work.

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No. 5.

BATTLES OF CONTRERAS AND CHURUBUSCO.—REPORT OF MAJOR-GENERAL SCOTT

No. 1.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY, SAN AUGUSTIN, ACAPULCO ROAD,

Nine miles from Mexico, August 19, 1847.

SIR:—Leaving a competent garrison in Puebla, this army advanced upon the capital, as follows: Twiggs's division, preceded by Harney's brigade of cavalry, the 7th; Quitman's division of volunteers, with a small detachment of United States marines, the 8th; Worth's division, the 9th, and Pillow's division, the 10th; all in this month. On the 8th, I overtook, and then continued with the

leading division. The corps were, at no time, beyond five hours, or supporting distance apart; and on descending into the basin of the capital (75 miles from Puebla) they became more closely approximated about the head of Lake Chalco, with Lake Tescuco a little in front and to the right. On the 12th and 13th we pushed *reconnoissances* upon the Peñon, an isolated mound (eight miles from Mexico) of great height, strongly fortified to the top, (three tiers of works,) and flooded around the base by the seasons of rains and sluices from the lakes. This mound, close to the national road, commands the principal approach to the city from the east. No doubt it might have been carried, but at a great and disproportionate loss, and I was anxious to spare the lives of this gallant army for a general battle, which I knew we had to win before capturing the city, or obtaining the great object of the campaign—a just and honorable peace.

Another *reconnoissance* was directed (the 13th) upon Mexicalcingo, to the left of the Peñon, a village at a fortified bridge across the outlet or canal, leading from Lake Jochimilco to the capital—five miles from the latter. It might have been easy (masking the Peñon) to force the passage; but, on the other side of the bridge, we should have found ourselves four miles from this road, on a narrow causeway, flanked to the right and left by water, or boggy grounds. These difficulties, closely viewed, threw me back upon the project, long entertained, of turning the strong eastern defences of the city, by passing around south of Lakes Chalco and Jochimilco, at the foot of the hills and mountains, so as to reach this point, and hence to manœuver, on hard ground, though much broken, to the south and southwest of the capital, which has been more or less under our view since the 10th instant.

Accordingly, by a sudden inversion—Worth's division, with Harney's cavalry brigade, leading—we marched on the 15th instant. Pillow's and Quitman's divisions followed closely, and then Twiggs's division, which was left till the next day, at Ayotla, in order to threaten the Peñon and Mexicalcingo, and to deceive the enemy as long as practicable.

Twiggs, on the 16th, marching from Ayotla, towards Chalco, (six miles,) met a corps of more than double his numbers—cavalry and infantry—under General Valencia. Twiggs halted, deployed into line, and by a few rounds from Captain Taylor's field battery, dispersed the enemy, killing or wounding many men and horses. No other molestation has been experienced except a few random shot from guerrilleros, on the heights; and the march of twenty-seven miles, over a route deemed impracticable by the enemy, is now accomplished by all the corps—thanks to their indomitable zeal and physical prowess.

Arriving here, the 18th, Worth's division and Harney's cavalry were pushed forward a league, to reconnoitre and to carry, or to mask San Antonio, on the direct road to the capital. This village was found strongly defended by field-works, heavy guns, and a numerous garrison. It could only be turned by infantry, to the left, over a field of volcanic rocks and lava; for, to our right, the ground was too boggy. It was soon ascertained, by the daring engineers, Captain Mason and Lieutenants Stevens and Tower, that the point could only be approached by the front, over a narrow causeway, flanked with wet ditches of great depth. Worth was ordered not to attack, but to threaten and to mask the place.

The first shot fired from San Antonio (the 18th) killed Captain S. Thornton, 2d dragoons, a gallant officer, who was covering the operations with his company.

The same day a *reconnoissance* was commenced to the left of San Augustin, first over difficult mounds, and further on, over the same field of volcanic rocks and lava which extends to the mountains, some five miles, from San Antonio towards Magdalena. This *reconnoissance* was continued, to-day, by Capatin Lee, assisted by Lieutenants Beauregard and Tower, all of the engineers, who were joined in the afternoon by Major Smith of the same corps. Other divisions

coming up, Pillow's was advanced to make a practicable road for heavy artillery, and Twigg's thrown farther in front, to cover that operation; for, by the partial *reconnaissance* of yesterday, Captain Lee discovered a large corps of observation in that direction, with a detachment of which his supports of cavalry and foot under Captain Kearney and Lieutenant-Colonel Graham, respectively, had a successful skirmish.

By three o'clock this afternoon, the advanced divisions came to a point where the new road could only be continued under the direct fire of 22 pieces of the enemy's artillery (most of them of large calibre), placed in a strong entrenched camp to oppose our operations, and surrounded by every advantage of ground, besides immense bodies of cavalry and infantry, hourly reinforced from the city, over an excellent road beyond the volcanic field, and consequently entirely beyond the reach of our cavalry and artillery.

Arriving on the ground, an hour later, I found that Pillow's and Twigg's division had advanced to dislodge the enemy, picking their way (all officers on foot) along his front, and extending themselves towards the road, from the city and the enemy's left. Captain Magruder's field battery, of 12 and 6-pounders, and Lieutenant Callender's battery of mountain howitzers and rockets, had also, with great difficulty, been advanced within range of the entrenched camp. These batteries, most gallantly served, suffered much in the course of the afternoon from the enemy's superior metal.

The battle, though mostly stationary, continued to rage with great violence until nightfall. Brevet Brigadier-General P. F. Smith's and Brevet Colonel Riley's brigades (Twigg's division), supported by Brigadier-Generals Pierce's and Cadwalader's brigades (Pillow's division), were more than three hours under a heavy fire of artillery and musketry along the almost impassable ravine in front and to the left of the entrenched camp. Besides the 22 pieces of artillery, the camp and ravine were defended closely by masses of infantry, and these again supported by clouds of cavalry at hand and hovering in view; consequently no decided impression could be made by day-light on the enemy's most formidable position, because, independent of the difficulty of the ravine, our infantry, unaccompanied by cavalry and artillery, could not advance in column without being mowed down by the grape and canister of the batteries, nor advance in line without being ridden over by the enemy's numerous cavalry. All our corps, however, including Magruder's and Callender's last batteries, not only maintained the exposed positions early gained, but all attempted charges upon them, respectively,—particularly on Riley, twice closely engaged with cavalry in greatly superior numbers, were repulsed and punished.

From an eminence, soon after arriving near the scene, I observed the church and hamlet of Contreras (or Ansalda) on the road leading up from the capital, through the entrenched camp, to Magdalena, and seeing, at the same time, the stream of reinforcements advancing by that road from the city, I ordered (through Major-General Pillow) Colonel Morgan, with his regiment, the 15th, till then held in reserve by Pillow, to move forward, and to occupy Contreras (or Ansalda)—being persuaded, if occupied, it would arrest the enemy's reinforcements and ultimately decide the battle.

Riley was already on the enemy's left, in advance of the hamlet. A few minutes later, Brigadier-General Shields, with his volunteer brigade (New York and South Carolina regiments—Quitman's division) coming up under my orders, from San Augustin, I directed Shields to follow and to sustain Morgan. These corps, over the extreme difficulties of ground—partially covered with a low forest—before described, reached Contreras, and found Cadwalader's brigade in position, observing the formidable movement from the capital, and much needing the timely reinforcement.

It was already dark, and the cold rain had begun to fall in torrents upon our unsheltered troops; for the hamlet, though a strong defensive position, can hold

only the wounded men, and, unfortunately, the new regiments have little or nothing to eat in their haversacks. Wet, hungry, and without the possibility of sleep—all our gallant corps, I learn, are full of confidence, and only wait for the last hour of darkness to gain the positions whence to storm and carry the enemy's works.

Of the seven officers dispatched, since about sundown, from my position, opposite to the enemy's centre, and on this side of the field of rocks and lava, to communicate instructions to the hamlet, not one has succeeded in getting through those difficulties, increased by darkness. They have all returned. But the gallant and indefatigable Captain Lee, of the engineers, who has been constantly with the operating forces, is just in from Shields, Smith, Cadwalader, &c., to report as above, and to ask that a powerful diversion be made against the centre of the entrenched camp towards morning.

Brigadier-General Twiggs, cut off, as above, from the part of his division beyond the impracticable ground, and Captain Lee, are gone, under my orders, to collect the forces remaining on this side, with which to make that diversion about 5 o'clock in the morning.

And here I will end this report, commenced at its date, and, in another, continue the narrative of the great events which then impended.

I have the honor to be, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

Hon. WM. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,

Tacubaya, at the gates of Mexico, August 28, 1847.

SIR:—My report No. 31, commenced in the night of the 19th instant, closed the operations of the army with that day.

The morning of the 20th opened with one of a series of unsurpassed achievements, all in view of the capital, and to which I shall give the general name—*battle of Mexico.*

In the night of the 19th, Brigadier-Generals Shields, P. F. Smith, and Cadwalader, and Colonel Riley, with their brigades, and the 15th regiment, under Colonel Morgan, detached from Brigadier-General Pierce, found themselves in and about the important position—the village, hamlet, or *hacienda*, called, indifferently, Contreras, Ansalda, San Geronimo, half a mile nearer to the city than the enemy's entrenched camp, on the same road, towards the factory of Magdalena.

That camp had been, unexpectedly, our formidable point of attack the afternoon before, and we had now to take it, without the aid of cavalry or artillery, or to throw back our advanced corps upon the road from San Augustin to the city, and thence force a passage through San Antonio.

Accordingly, to meet contingencies, Major-General Worth was ordered to leave early in the morning of the 20th, one of his brigades to mask San Antonio, and to march with the other, six miles, *via* San Augustin, upon Contreras. A like destination was given to Major-General Quitman and his remaining brigade in San Augustin—replacing, for the moment, the garrison of that important depot with Harney's brigade of cavalry, as horse could not pass over the intervening rocks, &c., to reach the field of battle.

A diversion for an earlier hour (daylight) had been arranged the night before, according to the suggestion of Brigadier-General Smith, received through the engineer, Captain Lee, who conveyed my orders to our troops remaining on the ground opposite to the enemy's centre—the point for the diversion or a real attack, as circumstances might allow.

Guided by Captain Lee, it proved the latter, under the command of Colonel Ransom of the 9th, having with him that regiment and some companies of three others—the 3d, 12th, and rifles.

Shields, the senior officer at the hamlet, having arrived in the night, after Smith had arranged with Cadwalader and Riley the plan of attack for the morning, delicately waived interference; but reserved to himself the double task of holding the hamlet with his two regiments (South Carolina and New York volunteers) against ten times his numbers on the side of the city, including the slopes to his left, and in case the camp in his rear should be carried, to face about and cut off the flying enemy.

At 3 o'clock, A. M., the great movement commenced on the rear of the enemy's camp. Riley leading, followed successively by Cadwalader's and Smith's brigades, the latter temporarily under the orders of Major Dimick, of the 1st artillery—the whole force being commanded by Smith, the senior in the general attack, and whose arrangements, skill, and gallantry always challenge the highest admiration.

The march was rendered tedious by the darkness, rain, and mud; but about sunrise, Riley, conducted by Lieutenant Tower, engineer, had reached an elevation behind the enemy, whence he precipitated his columns, stormed the entrenchments, planted his several colors upon them, and carried the work—all in seventeen minutes.

Conducted by Lieutenant Beauregard, engineer, and Lieutenant Brooks, of Twigg's staff—both of whom, like Lieutenant Tower, had, in the night, twice reconnoitered the ground—Cadwalader brought up to the general assault two of his regiments—the voltiguers and the 11th, and at the appointed time, Colonel Ransom, with his temporary brigade, conducted by Captain Lee, engineer, not only made the movement to divert and distract the enemy, but, after crossing the deep ravine in his front, advanced, and poured into the works and upon the fugitives many volleys from his destructive musketry.

In the meantime, Smith's own brigade, under the temporary command of Major Dimick, following the movements of Riley and Cadwalader, discovered, opposite to, and outside of the works, a long line of Mexican cavalry, drawn up as a support. Dimick having at the head of the brigade the company of sappers and miners under Lieutenant Smith, engineer, who had conducted the march, was ordered by Brigadier-General Smith to form line faced to the enemy, and in a charge against a flank, routed the cavalry.

Shields, too, by the wise disposition of his brigade, and gallant activity, contributed much to the general results. He held masses of cavalry and infantry, supported by artillery, in check below him, and captured hundreds, with one general (Mendoza) of those who fled from above.

I doubt whether a more brilliant or decisive victory—taking into view ground, artificial defences, batteries, and the extreme disparity of numbers—without cavalry or artillery on our side—is to be found on record. Including all our corps directed against the entrenched camp, with Shields' brigade at the hamlet, we positively did not number over 4,500 rank and file; and we know, by sight, and since, more certainly, by many captured documents and letters, that the enemy had actually engaged on the spot, 7,000 men, with at least 12,000 more hovering within sight, and striking distance—both on the 19th and 20th. All, not killed or captured, now fled with precipitation.

Thus was the great victory of *Contreras* achieved; one road to the capital opened; 700 of the enemy killed; 813 prisoners, including among 88 officers, 4 generals; besides many colors and standards; 22 pieces of brass ordnance—half of large calibre; thousands of small arms and accoutrements; an immense quantity of shot, shells, powder and cartridges; 700 pack mules, many horses, &c. &c.—all in our hands.

It is highly gratifying to find that, by skillful arrangement, and rapidity of execution, our loss, in killed and wounded did not exceed, on the spot, 60—among the former the brave Captain Charles Hanson, of the 4th infantry—not more distinguished for gallantry, than for modesty, morals, and piety. Lieu-

tenant J. P. Johnstone, 1st artillery, serving with Magruder's battery, a young officer of the highest promise, was killed the evening before.

One of the most pleasing incidents of the victory is the recapture, in the works, by Captain Drum, 4th artillery, under Major Gardner, of the two brass six-pounders, taken from another company of the same regiment, though without the loss of honor, at the glorious battle of Buena Vista—about which guns the whole regiment had mourned for so many long months! Coming up a little later, I had the happiness to join in the protracted cheers of the gallant 4th on the joyous event; and, indeed, the whole army sympathizes in its just pride and exultation.

The battle being won before the advancing brigades of Worth's and Quitman's divisions were in sight, both were ordered back to their late positions—Worth, to attack San Antonio in front, with his whole force, as soon as approached in the rear by Pillow's and Twiggs's division—moving from Contreras, through San Angel and Coyoacan. By carrying San Antonio, we knew that we should open another—a shorter and better road to the capital, for our siege and other trains.

Accordingly, the two advanced divisions and Shields's brigade marched from Contreras, under the immediate orders of Major-General Pillow, who was now joined by the gallant Brigadier-General Pierce of his division, personally thrown out of activity, late the evening before, by a severe hurt received from the fall of his horse.

After giving necessary orders on the field, in the midst of prisoners and trophies, and sending instructions to Harney's brigade of cavalry, left at San Augustin, to join me, I personally followed Pillow's command.

Arriving at Coyoacan, two miles by a cross road, from the rear of San Antonio, I first detached Captain Lee, engineer, with Captain Kearney's troop, 1st dragoons, supported by the rifle regiment, under Major Loring, to reconnoitre that strong point; and next dispatched Major-General Pillow, with one of his brigades, (Cadwalader's,) to make the attack upon it, in concert with Major-General Worth on the opposite side.

At the same time, by another road to the left, Lieutenant Stevens, of the engineers, supported by Lieutenant G. W. Smith's company of sappers and miners, of the same corps, was sent to reconnoitre the strongly fortified church or convent of San Pablo, in the hamlet of Churubusco—one mile off. Twiggs, with one of his brigades (Smith's—less the rifles) and Captain Taylor's field battery, was ordered to follow and to attack the convent. Major Smith, senior engineer, was dispatched to concert with Twiggs the mode and means of attack, and Twiggs's other brigade (Riley's) I soon ordered to support him.

Next (but all in ten minutes) I sent Pierce (just able to keep the saddle) with his brigade (Pillow's division) conducted by Captain Lee, engineer, by a third road, a little farther to our left, to attack the enemy's right and rear, in order to favor the movement upon the convent, and cut off the retreat towards the capital. And, finally, Shields, senior brigadier to Pierce, with the New York and South Carolina volunteers, (Quitman's division,) was ordered to follow Pierce closely, and to take the command of our left wing. All these movements were made with the utmost alacrity by our gallant troops and commanders.

Finding myself at Coyoacan, from which so many roads conveniently branched, without escort or reserve, I had to advance, for safety, close upon Twiggs's rear. The battle now raged from the right to the left of our whole line.

Learning on the return of Captain Lee, that Shields, in the rear of Churubusco, was hard pressed, and in danger of being outflanked, if not overwhelmed, by greatly superior numbers, I immediately sent, under Major Sumner, 2d dragoons, the rifles (Twiggs's reserve) and Captain Sibley's troop, 2d dragoons, then at hand, to support our left, guided by the same engineer.

About an hour earlier, Worth had, by skillful and daring movements upon the front and right, turned and forced San Antonio—its garrison, no doubt, much shaken by our decisive victory at Contreras.

His second brigade, (Colonel Clarke's,) conducted by Captain Mason, engineer, assisted by Lieutenant Hardcastle, topographical engineer, turned the right, and by a wide sweep came out upon the high road to the capital. At this point the heavy garrison (3,000 men) in retreat was, by Clarke, cut in the centre: one portion, the rear, driven upon Dolores, off to the right; and the other upon Churubusco, in the direct line of our operations. The first brigade (Colonel Garland's), same division, consisting of the 2d artillery, under Major Galt, the 3d artillery, under Lieutenant-Colonel Belton, and the 4th infantry, commanded by Major F. Lee, with Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan's field battery (temporarily) followed in pursuit through the town, taking one general prisoner, the abandoned guns, (five pieces,) much ammunition, and other public property.

The forcing of San Antonio was the *second* brilliant event of the day.

Worth's division being soon reunited in hot pursuit, he was joined by Major-General Pillow, who, marching from Coyoacan and discovering that San Antonio had been carried, immediately turned to the left, according to my instructions, and, though much impeded by ditches and swamps, hastened to the attack of Churubusco.

The hamlet or scattered houses bearing this name, presented, besides the fortified convent, a strong field work (*tete du pont*) with regular bastions and curtains, at the head of a bridge over which the road passes from San Antonio to the capital.

The whole remaining forces of Mexico—some 27,000 men—cavalry, artillery, and infantry, collected from every quarter—were now in, on the flanks, or within supporting distance of those works, and seemed resolved to make a last and desperate stand; for, if beaten here, the feeble defences at the gates of the city—four miles off—could not, as was well known to both parties, delay the victors an hour. The capital of an ancient empire, now of a great republic, or an early peace, the assailants were resolved to win. Not an American—and we were less than a third of the enemy's numbers—had a doubt as to the result.

The fortified church or convent, hotly pressed by Twigg's, had already held out about an hour, when Worth and Pillow—the latter having with him Cadwalader's brigade—began to manœuvre closely upon the *tete du pont*, with the convent at half gun-shot to their left. Garland's brigade, (Worth's division,) to which had been added the light battalion under Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, continued to advance in front and under the fire of a long line of infantry, off on the left of the bridge; and Clarke, of the same division, directed his brigade along the road or close by its side. Two of Pillow's and Cadwalader's regiments, the 11th and 14th, supported and participated in this direct movement: the other (the *voltigeurs*) was left in reserve. Most of these corps—particularly Clarke's brigade—advancing perpendicularly, were made to suffer much by the fire of the *tete du pont*, and they would have suffered greatly more by flank attacks from the convent, but for the pressure of Twigg's on the other side of that work.

This well-combined and daring movement at length reached the principal point of attack, and the formidable *tete du pont* was at once assaulted and carried by the bayonet. Its deep wet ditch was first gallantly crossed by the 8th and 5th infantry, commanded, respectively, by Major Waite and Lieutenant-Colonel Scott—followed closely by the 6th infantry, (same brigade) which had been so much exposed on the road—the 11th regiment, under Lieutenant-Colonel Graham, and the 14th, commanded by Colonel Trousdale, both of Cadwalader's brigade, Pillow's division. About the same time, the enemy in front of

Garland, after a hot conflict of an hour and a half gave way, in a retreat towards the capital.

The immediate results of this *third* signal triumph of the day were: three field-pieces, one hundred and ninety-two prisoners, much ammunition, and two colors taken at the *tete du pont*.

Lieutenant J. F. Irons, 1st artillery, aid-de-camp to Brigadier-General Cadwalader, a young officer of great merit and conspicuous in battle on several previous occasions, received, in front of the work, a mortal wound. (Since dead.)

As the concurrent attack upon the convent favored, physically and morally, the assault upon the *tete du pont*, so reciprocally, no doubt, the fall of the latter contributed to the capture of the former. The two works were only some four hundred and fifty yards apart; and as soon as we were in possession of the *tete du pont*, a captured four-pounder was turned and fired—first by Captain Larkin Smith, and next by Lieutenant Snelling, both of the 8th infantry—several times upon the convent. In the same brief interval, Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan (also of Worth's division) gallantly brought two of his guns to bear, at a short range, from the San Antonio road, upon the principal face of the work, and on the tower of the church, which in the obstinate contest, had been often refilled with some of the best sharp-shooters of the enemy.

Finally, twenty minutes after the *tete du pont* had been carried by Worth and Pillow, and at the end of a desperate conflict of two hours and a half, the church or convent—the citadel of the strong line of defence along the rivulet of Churubusco—yielded to Twiggs's division, and threw out, on all sides, signals of surrender. The white flags, however, were not exhibited until the moment when the 3d infantry, under Captain Alexander, had cleared the way by fire and bayonet, and had entered the work. Captain J. M. Smith and Lieutenant O. L. Shepherd, both of that regiment, with their companies, had the glory of leading the assault. The former received the surrender, and Captain Alexander instantly hung out from the balcony the colors of the gallant 3d. Major Dimick, with a part of the 1st artillery, serving as infantry, entered nearly abreast with the leading troops.

Captain Taylor's field battery, attached to Twiggs's division, opened its effective fire at an early moment, upon the outworks of the convent and the tower of its church. Exposed to the severest fire of the enemy, the captain, his officers and men, won universal admiration; but at length much disabled, in men and horses, the battery was, by superior orders, withdrawn from the action, thirty minutes before the surrender of the convent.

Those corps, excepting Taylor's battery, belonged to the brigade of Brigadier-General Smith, who closely directed the whole attack in front, with his habitual coolness and ability; while Riley's brigade—the 2d and 7th infantry, under Captain T. Morris and Lieutenant-Colonel Plympton, respectively—vigorously engaged the right of the work and part of its rear. At the moment the rifles, belonging to Smith's, were detached in support of Brigadier-General Shields's on our extreme left; and the 4th artillery, acting as infantry, under Major Gardner, belonging to Riley's brigade, had been left in charge of the camp, trophies, &c., at Contreras. Twiggs's division, at Churubusco, had thus been deprived of the services of two of its most gallant and effective regiments.

The immediate results of this victory were:—the capture of seven field-pieces, some ammunition, one color, three generals, and 1,261 prisoners, including other officers.

Captains E. A. Capron and M. J. Burke, and Lieutenant S. Hoffman, all of the 1st artillery, and Captain J. W. Anderson and Lieutenant Thomas Easley, both of the 2d infantry—five officers of great merit—fell gallantly before this work.

The capture of the enemy's citadel was the *fourth* great achievement of our arms in the same day.

It has been stated that, some two hours and a half before, Pierce's, followed closely by the volunteer brigade—both under the command of Brigadier-General Shields—had been detached to our left to turn the enemy's works—to prevent the escape of the garrisons and to oppose the extension of the enemy's numerous corps, from the rear, upon and around our left.

Considering the inferior numbers of the two brigades, the objects of the movement were difficult to accomplish. Hence the reinforcement (the rifles, &c.) sent forward a little later.

In a winding march of a mile around to the right, this temporary division found itself on the edge of an open wet meadow, near the road from San Antonio to the capital. and in the presence of some 4,000 of the enemy's infantry, a little in rear of Churubusco, on that road. Establishing the right at a strong building, Shields extended his left, parallel to the road, to outflank the enemy towards the capital. But the enemy extending his right, supported by 3,000 cavalry, more rapidly, (being favored by better ground,) in the same direction, Shields concentrated the division about a hamlet, and determined to attack in front. The battle was long, hot and varied; but ultimately, success crowned the zeal and gallantry of our troops, ably directed by their distinguished commander, Brigadier-General Shields. The 9th, 12th, and 15th regiments, under Colonel Ransom, Captain Wood, and Colonel Morgau, respectively, of Pierce's brigade, (Pillow's division,) and the New York and South Carolina volunteers, under Colonels Burnett and Butler, respectively, of Shields's own brigade, (Quitman's division,) together with the mountain howitzer battery, now under Lieutenant Reno, of the ordnance corps, all shared in the glory of this action—our *fifth* victory in the same day.

Brigadier-General Pierce, from the hurt of the evening before—under pain and exhaustion—fainted in the action. Several other changes in command occurred on this field. Thus Colonel Morgan being severely wounded, the command of the 15th infantry devolved on Lieutenant-Colonel Howard; Colonel Burnett receiving a like wound, the command of the New York volunteers fell to Lieutenant Colonel Baxter; and, on the fall of the lamented Colonel P. M. Butler—earlier badly wounded, but continuing to lead nobly in the hottest part of the battle—the command of the South Carolina volunteers devolved—first, on Lieutenant-Colonel Dickenson, who being severely wounded, (as before in the siege of Vera Cruz), the regiment ultimately fell under the orders of Major Gladden.

Lieutenants David Adams and William R. Williams of the same corps; Captain Augustus Quarles and Lieutenant J. B. Goodman of the 15th. and Lieutenant E. Chandler, New York volunteers—all gallant officers, nobly fell in the same action.

Shields took 380 prisoners, including officers; and it cannot be doubted that the rage of the conflict between him and the enemy, just in the rear of the *tete du pont* and the convent, had some influence on the surrender of those formidable defences.

As soon as the *tete du pont* was carried, the greater part of Worth's and Pillow's forces passed that bridge in rapid pursuit of the flying enemy. These distinguished generals, coming up with Brigadier-General Shields, now also victorious, the three continued to press upon the fugitives to within a mile and a half of the capital. Here, Colonel Harney, with a small part of his brigade of cavalry, rapidly passed to the front, and charged the enemy up to the nearest gate.

The cavalry charge was headed by Captain Kearney, of the 1st dragoons, having in squadron, with his own troop, that of Captain McReynolds of the 3d—making the usual escort to general head-quarters; but, being early in the day, attached for general service, was now under Colonel Harney's orders. The gallant captain not hearing the *recall*, that had been sounded, dashed up to the

San Antonio gate, sabreing, in his way, all who resisted. Of the seven officers of the squadron, Kearney lost his left arm; McReynolds and Lieutenant Lorimer Graham were both severely wounded, and Lieutenant R. S. Ewell, who succeeded to the command of the escort, had two horses killed under him. Major F. D. Mills, of the 15th infantry, a volunteer in this charge, was killed at the gate.

So terminated the series of events which I have but feebly presented. My thanks were freely poured out on the different fields—to the abilities and science of generals and other officers—to the gallantry and prowess of all—the rank and file included. But a reward infinitely higher—the applause of a grateful country and government—will, I cannot doubt, be accorded, in due time, to so much merit, of every sort, displayed by this glorious army, which has now overcome all difficulties—distance, climate, ground, fortifications, numbers.

It has in a single day, in many battles, as often defeated 32,000 men; made about 3,000 prisoners, including eight generals (two of them ex-presidents), and 205 other officers; killed or wounded 4,000 of all ranks—besides entire corps dispersed and dissolved; captured 37 pieces of ordnance—more than trebling our siege train and field batteries—with a large number of small arms, a full supply of ammunition of every kind, &c. &c.

These great results have overwhelmed the enemy.

Our loss amounts to 1,053—*killed*, 139, including 16 officers; *wounded*, 876, with 60 officers. The greater number of the dead and disabled were of the highest worth. Those under treatment, thanks to our very able medical officers, are generally doing well.

I regret having been obliged, on the 20th, to leave Major-General Quitman, an able commander, with a part of his division—the fine 2d Pennsylvania volunteers and the veteran detachment of United States marines—at our important depot, San Augustin. It was there that I had placed our sick and wounded; the siege, supply and baggage trains. If these had been lost, the army would have been driven almost to despair; and considering the enemy's very great excess of numbers, and the many approaches to the depot, it might well have become, emphatically, *the post of honor*.

After so many victories, we might, with but little additional loss, have occupied the capital the same evening. But Mr. Trist, commissioner, &c., as well as myself, had been admonished by the best friends of peace—intelligent neutrals and some American residents—against precipitation; lest, by wantonly driving away the government and others—dishonored—we might scatter the elements of peace, excite a spirit of national desperation, and thus indefinitely postpone the hope of accommodation. Deeply impressed with this danger; and remembering our mission—to conquer a peace—the army very cheerfully sacrificed to patriotism—to the great wish and want of our country—the *eclat* that would have followed an entrance—sword in hand—into a great capital. Willing to leave something to this republic—of no immediate value to us—on which to rest her pride, and to recover temper—I halted our victorious corps at the gates of the city, (at least for a time,) and have them now cantoned in the neighboring villages, where they are well sheltered and supplied with all necessaries.

On the morning of the 21st, being about to take up battering or assaulting positions, to authorize me to summon the city to surrender, or to sign an armistice with a pledge to enter at once into negotiations for peace—a mission came out to propose a truce. Rejecting its terms, I dispatched my contemplated note to President Santa Anna—omitting the summons. The 22d, commissioners were appointed by the commanders of the two armies; the armistice was signed the 23d, and ratifications exchanged the 24th.

All matters in dispute between the two governments have been thus happily turned over to their plenipotentiaries, who have now had several conferences, and with, I think, some hope of signing a treaty of peace.

There will be transmitted to the Adjutant-General reports from divisions, brigades, &c., on the foregoing operations, to which I must refer, with my hearty concurrence in the just applause bestowed on corps and individuals by their respective commanders. I have been able—this report being necessarily a summary—to bring out, comparatively, but little of individual merit not lying directly in the way of the narrative. Thus I doubt whether I have, in express terms, given my approbation and applause to the commanders of divisions and independent brigades; but left their fame upon higher grounds—the simple record of their great deeds and the brilliant results.

To the staff, both general and personal, attached to general head-quarters, I was again under high obligations, for services in the field, as always in the bureaux. I add their names, &c.: Lieut.-Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector-general; Major J. L. Smith, Captain R. E. Lee, (as distinguished for felicitous execution as for science and daring,) Captain Mason, Lieutenants Stevens, Beauregard, and Tower—all of the engineers; Major Turnbull, Captain McClellan, and Lieutenant Hardcastle, topographical engineers; Captain Huger and Lieut. Hagner, of the ordnance; Captains Irwin and Wayne, of the quartermaster's department; Captain Grayson, of the commissariat; Surgeon-General Lawson, in his particular department; Captain H. L. Scott, acting assistant adjutant-general; Lieut. Williams, aid-de-camp, and Lieut. Lay, military secretary. Lieut. Schuyler Hamilton, another aid-de-camp, had, a week before, been thrown out of activity by a severe wound received in a successful charge of cavalry against cavalry, and four times his numbers; but on the 20th, I had the valuable services, as volunteer aids, of Majors Kirby and Van Buren, of the pay department, always eager for activity and distinction, and of a third, the gallant Major J. P. Gaines, of the Kentucky volunteers.

I have the honor to be, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

Hon. WM. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY,
Inspector-Gen. Dept., Tacubaya, Mexico, Aug. 25, 1847.

GENERAL:—I have the honor to report that I have been furnished with lists of prisoners of the Mexican army, captured by the American forces under your command in the several conflicts before the city of Mexico on the 20th instant, by which I am enabled to present the following recapitulation, which I presume to be accurate:

Generals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8
Colonels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Lieutenant-colonels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11
Majors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Aids-de-camp	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Adjutants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Captains	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	57
First lieutenants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45
Second lieutenants	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	68
Ensigns	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Cadet	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Non-commissioned officers, rank and file	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,637
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,432

Of the eight general officers, to wit: General Perdigon Garey, General Anaya, General Salas, General Mendoza, General Blanco, General Garcia, General Arellano, and General Rincon, the two first (Generals Garey and Anaya) have

been, by your order, unconditionally released, "in consideration of their high civil positions as members of the Mexican national congress."

Generals Blanco and Garcia, both wounded, have been, at their own request and by your order, paroled, "to enable them to receive the attention of their friends and families."

In addition to which Colonels Radrequez and Fuero, both wounded, have been paroled, for a like purpose; and permission has also been given for the removal to the city of Mexico of about forty-five wounded soldiers who were to have been designated by the Mexican surgeon-general.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

E. A. HITCHCOCK,
Lt.-Col. A. Insp.-Gen.

Major-General WINFIELD SCOTT,
General-in-chief of the American armies before the city of Mexico.

BATTLE OF MOLINO DEL REY.—REPORT OF MAJOR-GENERAL SCOTT.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY.

Tacubaya, near Mexico, Sept. 11, 1847.

SIR:—I have heretofore reported that I had, August 24, concluded an armistice with President Santa Anna, which was promptly followed by meetings between Mr. Trist and Mexican commissioners appointed to treat of peace.

Negotiations were actively continued with, as was understood, some prospect of a successful result up to the 2d instant, when our commissioner handed in his *ultimatum*, (on boundaries,) and the negotiators adjourned to meet again on the 6th.

Some infractions of the truce, in respect to our supplies from the city, were earlier committed, followed by apologies on the part of the enemy. These vexations I was willing to put down to the imbecility of the government, and waived pointed demands of reparation while any hope remained of a satisfactory termination of the war. But on the 5th, and more fully on the 6th, I learned that as soon as the *ultimatum* had been considered in a grand council of ministers and others, President Santa Anna, on the 4th or 5th, without giving me the slightest notice, actively recommenced strengthening the military defences of the city, in gross violation of the 3d article of the armistice.

On that information, which has since received the fullest verification, I addressed to him my note of the 6th. His reply, dated the same day, received the next morning, was absolutely and notoriously false, both in recrimination and explanation. I inclose copies of both papers, and have had no subsequent correspondence with the enemy.

Being delayed by the terms of the armistice more than two weeks, we had now, late on the 7th, to begin to reconnoitre the different approaches to the city, within our reach, before I could lay down any definite plan of attack.

The same afternoon a large body of the enemy was discovered hovering about the *Molinos del Rey*, within a mile and a third of this village, where I am quartered with the general staff and Worth's division.

It might have been supposed that an attack upon us was intended; but knowing the great value to the enemy of those mills, (*Molinos del Rey*,) containing a cannon foundry, with a large deposit of powder in *Casa Mata* near them; and having heard, two days before, that many church bells had been sent out to be cast into guns, the enemy's movement was easily understood, and I resolved at once to drive him early the next morning, to seize the powder, and to destroy the foundry.

Another motive for this decision—leaving the general plan of attack upon the city for full reconnoissances—was, that we knew our recent captures had left the enemy not a fourth of the guns necessary to arm, all at the same time, the

strong works at each of the eight city gates: and we could not cut the communication between the foundry and the capital without first taking the formidable castle on the heights of Chapultepec, which overlooked both and stood between.

For this difficult operation we were not entirely ready, and moreover we might altogether neglect the castle, if, as we then hoped, our reconnoissances should prove that the distant southern approaches to the city were more eligible than this southwestern approach.

Hence the decision promptly taken, the execution of which was assigned to Brevet Major-General Worth, whose division was reinforced with Cadwalader's brigade of Pillow's division, three squadrons of dragoons under Major Sumner, and some heavy guns of the siege train under Captain Huger of the ordnance, and Captain Drum of the 4th artillery—two officers of the highest merit.

For the decisive and brilliant results, I beg to refer to the report of the immediate commander, Major-General Worth, in whose commendations of the gallant officers and men—dead and living—I heartily concur; having witnessed, but with little interference, their noble devotion to fame and to country.

The enemy having several times reinforced his line, and the action soon becoming much more general than I had expected, I called up, from the distance of three miles, first, Major-General Pillow, with his remaining brigade, (Pierce's.) and next, Riley's brigade of Twiggs' division—leaving his other brigade (Smith's) in observation at San Angel. Those corps approached with zeal and rapidity; but the battle was won just as Brigadier-General Pierce reached the ground, and had interposed his corps between Garland's brigade (Worth's division) and the retreating enemy.

The accompanying report mentions, with just commendation, two of my volunteer aids—Major Kirby, paymaster, and Major Gaines, of the Kentucky volunteers. I also had the valuable services, on the same field, of several other officers of my staff, general and personal: Lieutenant-Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector-general; Captain R. E. Lee, engineer; Captain Irwin, chief quartermaster; Captain Grayson, chief commissary; Captain H. L. Scott, acting assistant adjutant-general; Lieutenant Williams, aid-de-camp; and Lieutenant Lay, military secretary.

I have the honor to be, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

The Hon. WM. L. MARCY, *Secretary of War.*

[Translation.]

TO HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE
ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES.

HEAD-QUARTERS, ARMY OF MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

Mexico, September 6, 1847.

SIR:—By the note of your excellency, under this date, I learn with surprise that you consider that the civil and military authorities of Mexico have violated articles seven, twelve, and three, of the armistice which I concluded with your excellency on the 24th of last month.

The civil and military authorities of Mexico have not obstructed the passage of provisions for the American army; and if at times their transmission has been retarded, it has been owing to the imprudence of the American agents, who, without having a previous understanding with the proper authorities, gave occasion for popular outbreaks, which it has cost the Mexican government much trouble to repress. Last night and the night before, the escorts for the provision train were ready to start, and were only detained because Mr. Hargous, the agent, desired it. The orders given to suspend the intercourse between the two armies were addressed to private individuals, and not to the agents of the army of the United States, and were intended purposely to expedite the transmission

of provisions to the army, by confining the intercourse to that object exclusively. In return for this conduct, your excellency has prevented the owners or managers of the grain mills in the vicinity of the city from furnishing any flour to the city, which is a true breach of the good faith your excellency had pledged to me.

It is false that any new work or fortification has been undertaken, because one or two repairs have only served to place them in the same condition they were in on the day the armistice was entered into; accident or the convenience of the moment having caused the destruction of the then existing works. I had very early notice of the establishment of the battery behind the mud wall of the house called Garay's, in the town occupied by you, and did not remonstrate, because the peace of two great republics could not be made to depend upon things grave in themselves, but of little value compared to the result in which all the friends of humanity and of the prosperity of the American continent take so great an interest.

It is not without great grief, and even indignation, that I have received communications from the cities and villages occupied by the army of your excellency, in relation to the violation of the temples consecrated to the worship of God, to the plunder of the sacred vases, and to the profanation of the images venerated by the Mexican people. Profoundly have I been afflicted by the complaints of fathers and husbands, of the violence offered to their daughters and wives; and these same cities and villages have been sacked, not only in violation of the armistice, but of the sacred principles proclaimed and respected by civilized nations. I have observed silence to the present moment, in order not to obstruct the progress of negotiations which held out the hope of terminating a scandalous war, and one which your excellency has characterized so justly as unnatural.

But I shall desist offering apologies, because I cannot be blind to the truth, that the true cause of the threats of renewing hostilities, contained in the note of your excellency, is, that I have not been willing to sign a treaty which would lessen considerably not only the territory of the republic, but that dignity and integrity which all nations defend to the last extremity. And if these considerations have not the same weight in the mind of your excellency, the responsibility before the world, who can easily distinguish on whose side is moderation and justice, will fall upon you.

I flatter myself that your excellency will be convinced, on calm reflection of the weight of my reasons. But if, by misfortune, you should seek only a pretext to deprive the first city of the American continent of an opportunity to free the unarmed population of the horrors of war, there will be left me no other means of saving them but to repel force by force, with the decision and energy which my high obligations impose upon me.

I have the honor to be your excellency's very obedient servant,

ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA ANNA.

A true copy of the original—*Mexico, September 7, 1847.*

JOSE D. ROMERO.

REPORT OF GENERAL WORTH.

HEAD-QUARTERS, 1ST DIVISION,

Tacubaya, September 10, 1847.

SIR:—Under the inconvenient circumstances incident to recent battle, and derangement from loss of commanders—staff, commissioned and non-commissioned—and amid the active scenes resulting therefrom, I proceed to make a report, in obedience to the orders of the general-in-chief, of the battle of El Molino del Rey, fought and won on the eighth of September, 1847, by the first division, reinforced as follows:

1st. Three squadrons of dragoons, and one company of mounted riflemen—270 men, under Major Sumner, 2d dragoons.

2d. Three pieces of field artillery, under Captain Drum.

3d. Two battering guns, (twenty-four pounders,) under Captain Huger.

4th. Cadwalader's brigade, 784 strong, consisting of the voltigeur regiment, the 11th and 14th regiments of infantry.

Having, in the course of the 7th, accompanied the general-in-chief on a reconnoissance of the formidable dispositions of the enemy near and around the castle of Chapultepec, they were found to exhibit an extended line of cavalry and infantry, sustained by a field battery of four guns—occupying directly, or sustaining, a system of defences collateral to the castle and summit. This examination gave fair observation of the configuration of the grounds, and the extent of the enemy's force; but, as appeared in the sequel, an inadequate idea of the nature of his defences—they being skillfully masked.

The general-in-chief ordered that my division, reinforced as before mentioned, should attack and carry those lines and defences, capture the enemy's artillery, destroy the machinery and material supposed to be in the foundry, (El Molino del Rey;) but limiting the operations to that extent. After which, my command was to be immediately withdrawn to its position, in the village of Tacubaya.

A close and daring reconnoissance, by Captain Mason of the engineers, made on the morning of the 7th, represented the enemy's lines collateral to Chapultepec to be as follows: His left rested upon and occupied a group of strong stone buildings, called El Molino del Rey, adjoining the grove at the foot of the hill of Chapultepec, and directly under the guns of the castle which crowns its summit. The right of his line rested upon another stone building, called Casa Mata, situated at the foot of the ridge that slopes gradually from the heights above the village of Tacubaya to the plain below. Midway between these buildings was the enemy's field battery, and his infantry forces were disposed on either side to support it. This reconnoissance was verified by Captain Mason and Colonel Duncan, on the afternoon of the same day. The result indicated that the centre was the weak point of the enemy's position; and that his flanks were the strong points, his left flank being the stronger.

As the enemy's system of defence was connected with the hill and castle of Chapultepec, and as my operations were limited to a specific object, it became necessary to isolate the work to be accomplished from the castle of Chapultepec and its immediate defences. To effect this object, the following dispositions were ordered: Colonel Garland's brigade to take possession on the right, strengthened by two pieces of Captain Drum's battery, to look to El Molino del Rey as well as any support of this position from Chapultepec; and also within sustaining distance of the assaulting party and the battering guns, which, under Captain Huger, were placed on the ridge, five or six hundred yards from El Molino del Rey, to batter and loosen this position from Chapultepec. An assaulting party of five hundred picked men and officers, under command of Brevet Major George Wright, 8th infantry, was also posted on the ridge to the left of the battering guns, to force the enemy's centre. The 2d (Clarke's) brigade, the command of which devolved on Colonel McIntosh, (Colonel Clarke being sick,) with Duncan's battery, was to take post still further up the ridge, opposite the enemy's right, to look to our left flank to sustain the assaulting column if necessary, or to discomfit the enemy, (the ground being favorable,) as circumstances might require. Cadwalader's brigade was held in reserve, in a position on the ridge, between the battering guns and McIntosh's brigade, and in easy support of either. The cavalry, under Major Sumner, to envelop our extreme left, and be governed by circumstances—to repel or attack, as the commander's judgment might suggest. The troops to be put in position under cover of the night; and the work to begin as soon as the heavy metal could be properly directed. Colonel Duncan was charged with the general disposition of the artillery. Accordingly, at 3 o'clock in the morning of the 8th, the several columns were put in motion on as many different routes; and when the gray of the morning

enabled them to be seen, they were as accurately in position as if posted in midday for review. The early dawn was the moment appointed for the attack, which was announced to our troops by the opening of Huger's guns on El Molino del Rey, upon which they continued to play actively until this point of the enemy's line became sensibly shaken, when the assaulting party, commanded by Wright, and guided by that accomplished officer, Captain Mason of the engineers, assisted by Lieutenant Foster, dashed gallantly forward to the assault. Unshaken by the galling of the musketry and canister that was showered upon them, on they rushed, driving infantry and artillery-men at the point of the bayonet. The enemy's field battery was taken, and his own guns were trailed upon his retreating masses; before, however, they could be discharged, perceiving that he had been dispossessed of his strong position by comparatively a handful of men, he made a desperate effort to regain it. Accordingly his retiring forces rallied and formed with this object. Aided by the infantry, which covered the housetops (within reach of which the battery had been moved during the night), the enemy's whole line opened upon the assaulting party a terrific fire of musketry, which struck down *eleven* out of the *fourteen* officers that composed the command, and non-commissioned officers and men in proportion; including, amongst the officers, Brevet Major Wright, the commander; Captain Mason and Lieutenant Foster, engineers; all severely wounded. This severe shock, staggered, for a moment, that gallant band. The light battalion, held to cover Captain Huger's battery, under Captain E. Kirby Smith, (Lieutenant-Colonel Smith being sick,) and the right wing of Cadwalader's brigade, were promptly ordered forward to support, which order was executed in the most gallant style; the enemy was again routed, and this point of his line carried, and fully possessed by our troops. In the meantime Garland's (1st) brigade, ably sustained by Captain Drum's artillery, assaulted the enemy's left, and, after an obstinate and very severe contest, drove him from his apparently impregnable position, immediately under the guns of the castle of Chapultepec. Drum's section, and the battering guns under Captain Huger, advanced to the enemy's position, and the captured guns of the enemy were now opened on his retreating forces, on which they continued to fire until beyond their reach. While this work was in progress of accomplishment by our centre and right, our troops on the left were not idle. Duncan's battery opened on the right of the enemy's line, up to this time engaged; and the 2d brigade, under Colonel McIntosh, was now ordered to assault the extreme right of the enemy's line. The direction of this brigade soon caused it to mask Duncan's battery—the fire of which, for the moment, was discontinued, and the brigade moved steadily on to the assault of Casa Mata, which, instead of an ordinary field entrenchment, as was supposed, proved to be a strong stone citadel, surrounded with bastioned entrenchments and impassable ditches—an old Spanish work, recently repaired and enlarged. When within easy musket range, the enemy opened a most deadly fire upon our advancing troops, which was kept up, without intermission, until our gallant men reached the very slope of the parapet of the work that surrounded the citadel. By this time, a large proportion of the command were either killed or wounded, amongst whom were the three senior officers present—Brevet Colonel McIntosh, Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel Scott, of the 5th infantry, and Major Waite, 8th infantry; the second killed, and the first and last desperately wounded. Still, the fire from the citadel was unabated. In this crisis of the attack, the command was, momentarily, thrown into disorder, and fell back on the left of Duncan's battery, where they rallied. As the 2d brigade moved to the assault, a very large cavalry and infantry force was discovered approaching rapidly upon our left flank, to reinforce the enemy's right. As soon as Duncan's battery was masked, as before mentioned, supported by Andrews's voltigeurs, of Cadwalader's brigade, it moved promptly to the extreme left of our line, to check the threatened assault on this point. The enemy's cavalry came, rapidly, within

canister range, when the whole battery opened a most effective fire, which soon broke the squadrons, and drove them back in disorder. During this fire upon the enemy's cavalry, Major Sumner's command moved to the front, and changed direction in admirable order, under a most appalling fire from the Casa Mata. This movement enabled his command to cross the ravine immediately on the left of Duncan's battery, where it remained, doing noble service, until the close of the action. At the very moment the cavalry were driven beyond reach, our own troops drew back from before the Casa Mata, and enabled the guns of Duncan's battery to reopen upon this position; which, after a short and well-directed fire, the enemy abandoned. The guns of the battery were now turned upon his retreating columns, and continued to play upon them until beyond reach.

He was now driven from every point in the field, and his strong lines, which had certainly been defended well, were in our possession. In fulfilment of the instructions of the general-in-chief, the Casa Mata was blown up, and such of the captured ammunition as was useless to us, as well as the cannon moulds found in El Molino del Rey, were destroyed. After which, my command, under the reiterated orders of the general-in-chief, returned to quarters at Tacubaya, with three of the enemy's four guns, (the fourth having been spiked, was rendered unserviceable;) as also a large quantity of small arms, with gun and musket ammunition, and exceeding eight hundred prisoners, including fifty-two commissioned officers.

By the concurrent testimony of a prisoner, the enemy's force exceeded fourteen thousand men, commanded by General Santa Anna in person. His total loss, killed, (including the 2d and 3d in command, Generals Valdarez and Leon.) wounded and prisoners, amounts to three thousand, exclusive of some two thousand who deserted after the rout.

My command, reinforced as before stated, only reached three thousand one hundred men of all arms. The contest continued two hours, and its severity is painfully attested by our heavy loss of officers, non-commissioned officers and privates, including in the first two classes some of the brightest ornaments of the service.

It will be seen that subordinate commanders speak in the warmest terms of the conduct of their officers and men, to which I beg leave to add my cordial testimony. There can be no higher exhibition of courage, constancy, and devotion to duty and to country.

These operations, occurring under the observation of the general-in-chief, gives assurance that justice will be done to the noble officers and soldiers whose valor achieved this glorious, but dear-bought victory. Commending the gallant dead, the wounded, and the few unscathed, to the respectful memory of their countrymen, and the rewards due to valor and conduct, I present the names of those especially noticed by subordinate commanders, uniting in all they have said, and extending the same testimony to those not named.

Cavalry.—The conduct of Captain Hardee and Lieutenant and Adjutant Oakes is noticed with high and deserved commendation.

Light Battery.—Lieutenants Hunt, Hayes and Clarke.

Drum's Artillery.—Lieutenants Benjamin and Porter, 4th artillery.

Ordnance.—Lieutenants Hagner and Stone.

Light Battalion.—Captain Reeve, 8th infantry; Lieutenants Peck, 2d artillery, and Dent, 5th infantry.

2d Artillery.—Lieutenant and Adjutant Anderson, and Lieutenant Sedgwick.

3d Artillery.—Captain R. Anderson, and Lieutenants Lendrum, Andrews and Shields.

4th Infantry.—Brevet Major Buchanan; Lieutenant and Adjutant Prince, Lieutenants Gore, Smith, Judah, Lincoln, McConnell and Jones.

5th Infantry.—Captains Ruggles and McPhail; Lieutenant and Adjutant Lugenbeel, Lieutenants Rossell, J. P. Smith, C. S. Hamilton and Fowler.

6th Infantry.—Captain Hoffman; Lieutenants E. Johnson, Armistead Wetmore, Buckner, and Adjutant Ernst.

8th Infantry.—Brevet Major Wright; Captains Scriven, L. Smith, and Gates; and Lieutenants Selden, Merchant, Morris, Pickett, and particularly Adjutant Longstreet.

Assaulting Column.—Brevet Major Wright, 8th infantry, commanding, wounded; Captain J. L. Mason, engineers, wounded; Captain M. E. Merrill, 5th infantry, killed; Captain A. Cady, 6th infantry, wounded; Captain W. H. T. Walker, 5th infantry, wounded; Captain J. V. Bomford, 8th infantry; First Lieutenant M. L. Shackelford, 2d artillery, wounded; First Lieutenant C. B. Daniels, 2d artillery, wounded; First Lieutenant G. O. Haller, 4th infantry; First Lieutenant J. D. Clarke, 8th infantry, wounded; Second Lieutenant J. F. Farry, 3d artillery, killed; Second Lieutenant J. G. S. Snelling, 8th infantry, wounded; Second Lieutenant M. Maloney, 4th infantry; Second Lieutenant John G. Foster, engineers, wounded.

It becomes my grateful duty to notice the respective commanders, each of whom was distinguished for conduct and gallantry.

Major Sumner, 2d dragoons, managed his command with skill and courage; was always in the right place, at the right time; menacing or repelling superior forces of his own arm. I cannot give, nor does that officer need higher praise.

Lieutenant-Colonel Moore, 3d dragoons, coming on the field during the action, while giving a fine example in his own person, delicately forebore to exercise his right to command.

Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan having been charged with the general disposition of the artillery, executed that service with his usual talent, and then commanded and directed the fire of *his own battery* with habitual effect and results. His report embodies those of Huger and Drum.

Captain Huger, chief of ordnance, placed his batteries and directed their fires with the highest skill, effect and gallantry.

Captain Drum's conduct was in all respects admirable. (See his report, Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan's, and that of his brigade commander, Garland.)

The chief of the first brigade (Garland) conducted his command to the assault with a courage and ability worthy of his own distinguished reputation. He speaks in terms of high commendation of the brigade staff—Brevet Captain Nichols, A. A. A. G., and Lieutenant Thorn, A. D. C.—both of whom were conspicuous—the latter capturing a regimental standard.

Brevet Colonel McIntosh led the 2d brigade to the assault with the most daring courage, and fell under two severe wounds. He bestows deserved praise on the brigade staff. Lieutenant and A. A. A. G. Kirkham, whose conduct was conspicuous to the whole command, and Lieutenant Burwell, who fell heading the assault.

Captain McKenzie commanded the 2d artillery; Captain Burke, the 3d; (superseded in the course of the action, by Lieutenant Colonel Belton;) Major Lee, the 4th Infantry; Captain Chapman, the 5th, after the fall of Lieutenant Colonel Scott; Major Bonnevillie, the 6th infantry; Major Waite the 8th; (succeeded, after being wounded, by Brevet Major Montgomery.) Mc'Kenzie, Burke, Waite and Montgomery were eminently distinguished.

I desire to bring to the notice of the general-in-chief the gallantry and good conduct of Brigadier-General Cadwalader and his command, by which the most timely and essential service was rendered in supporting the attack, and following up the success. Such movements as he was directed to make, were executed with zeal and promptness. General Cadwalader particularly notices Colonel Andrews, Lieutenant-Colonel Graham, killed, Lieutenant-Colonel J. E. Johnson, Majors Caldwell and Talcott, Captains C. J. Biddle, Irwin and Guthrie, Lieutenant R. H. Johnson, Assistant Surgeon S. D. Scott, and especially Captain G. Deas, Assistant Adjutant-General.

My acknowledgments are due, and respectfully tendered, to Major Kirby, pay department, and Major Gaines of the head-quarter staff, who came to me frequently during the conflict, with communications from the general-in-chief; and, at critical moments, my own staff being detached, did me the favor, under very hot fire, to give me their aid. I beg to tender these gentlemen my thanks—particularly Major Kirby, a soldier of thirty-five years' unrequited service.

I cannot close this report without a passing tribute to the gallant dead, among whom the service mourns the high-souled Scott, brevet Lieutenant-Colonel 5th infantry; Capt. Merrill, 5th infantry, on whom the command of the storming party devolved; Capt. E. Kirby Smith, (mortally wounded and since dead,) commanding the light battalion; Brevet Captain Ayres, 3d artillery; First Lieutenant Burbank, (mortally wounded and since dead,) 8th infantry; Lieutenants Strong and Burwell, 5th infantry; and Lieutenant Farry, 3d artillery. All of these gallant men fell as, when it pleased God, they would have wished to fall, fighting bravely at the head of their troops—leaving a bright example to the service, and spotless names to the cherished recollections of comrades.

It is again my grateful duty to present to the general-in-chief those ever-faithful and accomplished medical officers. Satterlee, Wright, Simpson, De Leon, Simons, Deyerle, and Roberts; the last mentioned, when the men of his regiment were almost deprived of commanding officers, assumed the duties of his fallen comrades, and was desperately, probably mortally, wounded.

I have to acknowledge my obligations to the gentlemen of the staff, who performed their duties with accustomed intelligence and bravery. Captain Mason and Lieutenant Foster, engineers, were badly wounded; Lieutenant Armstrong, 2d artillery, division commissary, who perished at the close of the action; Capt. Mackall, Assistant Adjutant-General; Captain Pemberton, Lieutenant Semmes, (navy,) and Lieutenant Wood, aid-de-camp; and Lieutenant Hardcastle, topographical engineers. And I desire to express my particular obligations to Major Borland, Arkansas volunteers, lately a prisoner of war; G. W. Kendall, Esq., of Louisiana; Captain Wyse and Mr. Hargous, army agent, who came upon the field, volunteered their acceptable services, and conducted themselves in the transmission of orders, with conspicuous gallantry.

Accompanying is a tabular statement of casualties, with lists, by name, of rank and file killed, viz: nine officers killed, and forty-nine wounded; seven hundred and twenty-nine rank and file killed and wounded.

Reference is respectfully made to the annexed topographical sketch, executed by Lieutenant Hardcastle, as illustrative of the tactical part of this report.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. J. WORTH,

Brevet Major-General Commanding.

To CAPT. SCOTT, *A. A. Adj-Gen., Head-quarters.*

BATTLES OF MEXICO—CAPTURE OF THE CITY.—REPORT OF MAJOR-GENERAL SCOTT.
No. 34.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
National Palace of Mexico, Sept. 18, 1847.

SIR:—At the end of another series of arduous and brilliant operations, of more than forty-eight hours continuance, this glorious army hoisted, on the morning of the 14th, the colors of the United States on the walls of this palace.

The victory of the 8th, at the Molinos del Rey, was followed by daring reconnoissances on the part of our distinguished engineers—Captain Lee, Lieutenants Bearegard, Stevens, and Tower—Major Smith, senior, being sick, and Capt. Mason, third in rank, wounded. Their operations were directed principally to the south—towards the gates of the Piedad, San Angel, (Nino Perdido,) San Antonio, and the Paseo de la Viga.

This city stands on a slight swell of ground, near the centre of an irregular basin, and is girdled with a ditch in its greater extent—a navigable canal of great breadth and depth—very difficult to bridge in the presence of an enemy, and serving at once for drainage, custom-house purposes, and military defence; leaving eight entrances or gates, over arches—each of which we found defended by a system of strong works, that seemed to require nothing but some men and guns to be impregnable.

Outside and within the cross-fires of those gates, we found to the south other obstacles but little less formidable. All the approaches near the city are over elevated causeways, cut in many places (to oppose us) and flanked on both sides by ditches, also of unusual dimensions. The numerous cross-roads are flanked in like manner, having bridges at the intersections, recently broken. The meadows thus checkered, are, moreover, in many spots, under water or marshy; for, it will be remembered, we were in the midst of the wet season, though with less rain than usual, and we could not wait for the fall of the neighboring lakes and the consequent drainage of the wet grounds at the edge of the city—the lowest in the whole basin.

After a close personal survey of the southern gates, covered by Pillow's division and Riley's brigade of Twiggs's—with four times our numbers concentrated in our immediate front—I determined, on the 11th, to avoid that net-work of obstacles, and to seek, by a sudden inversion to the southwest and west, less unfavorable approaches.

To economize the lives of our gallant officers and men, as well as to insure success, it became indispensable that this resolution should be long masked from the enemy; and again, that the new movement, when discovered, should be mistaken for a feint, and the old as indicating our true and ultimate point of attack.

Accordingly, on the spot, the 11th, I ordered Quitman's division from Coyoacan, to join Pillow, *by daylight*, before the southern gates, and then that the two major-generals, with their divisions, should, *by night*, proceed (two miles) to join me at Tacubaya, where I was quartered with Worth's division. Twiggs, with Riley's brigade and Captains Taylor's and Steptoe's field batteries—the latter of 12-pounders—was left in front of those gates to manœuvre, to threaten, or to make false attacks, in order to occupy and deceive the enemy. Twiggs's other brigade (Smith's) was left at supporting distance in the rear, at San Angel, till the morning of the 13th, and also to support our general depot at Mixcoac. The stratagem against the south was admirably executed throughout the 12th and down to the afternoon of the 13th, when it was too late for the enemy to recover from the effects of his delusion.

The first step in the new movement was to carry Chapultepec, a natural and isolated mound, of great elevation, strongly fortified at its base, on its acclivities and heights. Besides a numerous garrison, here was the military college of the republic, with a large number of sub-lieutenants and other students. Those works were within direct gun-shot of the village of Tacubaya, and, until carried, we could not approach the city on the west without making a circuit too wide and too hazardous.

In the course of the same night (that of the 11th) heavy batteries within easy ranges were established. No. 1, on our right, under the command of Captain Drum, 4th artillery, (relieved the next day, for some hours, by Lieutenant Andrews of the 3d,) and No. 2, commanded by Lieutenant Hagner, ordnance—both supported by Quitman's division. Nos. 3 and 4, on the opposite side, supported by Pillow's division, were commanded, the former by Capt. Brooks and Lieutenant S. S. Anderson, 2d artillery, alternately, and the latter by Lieutenant Stone, ordnance. The batteries were traced by Captain Huger and Captain Lee, engineer, and constructed by them, with the able assistance of the young officers of those corps and the artillery.

To prepare for an assault, it was foreseen that the play of the batteries might run into the second day; but recent captures had not only trebled our siege pieces, but also our ammunition; and we knew that we should greatly augment both by carrying the place. I was, therefore, in no haste in ordering an assault before the works were well crippled by our missiles.

The bombardment and cannonade, under the direction of Captain Huger; were commenced early in the morning of the 12th. Before nightfall, which necessarily stopped our batteries, we had perceived that a good impression had been made on the castle and its outworks, and that a large body of the enemy had remained outside, towards the city, from an early hour, to avoid our fire, and to be at hand on its cessation, in order to reinforce the garrison against an assault. The same outside force was discovered the next morning, after our batteries had reopened upon the castle, by which we again reduced its garrison to the *minimum* needed for the guns.

Pillow and Quitman had been in position since early in the night of the 11th. Major-General Worth was now ordered to hold his division in reserve, near the foundry, to support Pillow; and Brigadier-General Smith, of Twiggs's division; had just arrived with his brigade from Piedad, (2 miles,) to support Quitman. Twiggs's guns, before the southern gates, again reminded us, as the day before; that he, with Riley's brigade and Taylor's and Steptoe's batteries, was in activity, threatening the southern gates, and there holding a great part of the Mexican army on the defensive.

Worth's division furnished Pillow's attack with an assaulting party of some 250 volunteer officers and men, under Capt. McKenzie, of the 2d artillery; and Twiggs's division supplied a similar one, commanded by Captain Casey, 2d infantry, to Quitman. Each of those little columns was furnished with scaling ladders.

The signal I had appointed for the attack was the momentary cessation of fire on the part of our heavy batteries. About 8 o'clock in the morning of the 13th, judging that the time had arrived, by the effect of the missiles we had thrown, I sent an aid-de-camp to Pillow, and another to Quitman, with notice that the concerted signal was about to be given. Both columns now advanced with an alacrity that gave assurance of prompt success. The batteries, seizing opportunities, threw shots and shells upon the enemy over the heads of our men, with good effect, particularly at every attempt to reinforce the works from without to meet our assault.

Major-General Pillow's approach, on the west side, lay through an open grove, filled with sharp shooters, who were speedily dislodged; when, being up with the front of the attack, and emerging into open space, at the foot of a rocky acclivity, that gallant leader was struck down by an agonizing wound. The immediate command devolved on Brigadier-General Cadwalader, in the absence of the senior brigadier (Pierce) of the same division—an invalid since the events of August 19. On a previous call of Pillow, Worth had just sent him a reinforcement—Col. Clarke's brigade.

The broken acclivity was still to be ascended, and a strong redoubt, midway, to be carried, before reaching the castle on the heights. The advance of our brave men, led by brave officers, though necessarily slow, was unwavering, over rocks, chasms, and mines, and under the hottest fire of cannon and musketry. The redoubt now yielded to resistless valor, and the shouts that followed announced to the castle the fate that impended. The enemy were steadily driven from shelter to shelter. The retreat allowed not time to fire a single mine, without the certainty of blowing up friend and foe. Those who at a distance attempted to apply matches to the long trains, were shot down by our men. There was death below, as well as above ground. At length the ditch and wall of the main work were reached; the scaling-ladders were brought up and planted by the storming parties; some of the daring spirits first in the assault were cast

down—killed or wounded; but a lodgment was soon made; streams of heroes followed; all opposition was overcome, and several of our regimental colors flung out from the upper walls, amidst long-continued shouts and cheers, which sent dismay into the capital. No scene could have been more animating or glorious.

Major-General Quitman, nobly supported by Brigadier-Generals Shields and Smith [P. F.,] his other officers and men, was up with the part assigned him. Simultaneously with the movement on the west, he had gallantly approached the southeast of the same works over a causeway with cuts and batteries, and defended by an army strongly posted outside, to the east of the works. Those formidable obstacles Quitman had to face, with but little shelter for his troops or space for manœuvring. Deep ditches, flanking the causeway, made it difficult to cross on either side into the adjoining meadows, and these again were intersected by other ditches. Smith and his brigade had been early thrown out to make a sweep to the right, in order to present a front against the enemy's line, (outside,) and to turn two intervening batteries, near the foot of Chapultepec. This movement was also intended to support Quitman's storming parties, both on the causeway. The first of these, furnished by Twigg's division, was commanded in succession by Capt. Casey, 2d infantry, and Capt Paul, 7th infantry, after Casey had been severely wounded; and the second, originally under the gallant Major Twigg, marine corps, killed, and then Capt. Miller, 2d Pennsylvania volunteers. The storming party, now commanded by Capt. Paul, seconded by Captain Roberts of the rifles, Lieut. Stewart, and others of the same regiment, Smith's brigade, carried the two batteries in the road, took some guns, with many prisoners, and drove the enemy posted behind in support. The New York and South Carolina volunteers (Shields' brigade) and the 2d Pennsylvania volunteers, all on the left of Quitman's line, together with portions of his storming parties, crossed the meadows in front, under a heavy fire, and entered the outer enclosure of Chapultepec just in time to join in the final assault from the west.

Besides Major-Generals Pillow and Quitman, Brigadier-Generals Shields, Smith, and Cadwalader, the following are the officers and corps most distinguished in those brilliant operations. The voltigeur regiment, in two detachments, commanded, respectively, by Colonel Andrews and Lieut.-Col. Johnstone—the latter mostly in the lead, accompanied by Major Caldwell; Captains Barnard and Biddle, of the same regiment—the former the first to plant a regimental color, and the latter, among the first in the assault; the storming party of Worth's division, under Captain McKenzie, 2d artillery, with Lieut. Selden, 8th infantry, early on the ladder and badly wounded; Lieut. Armistead, 6th infantry, the first to leap into the ditch to plant a ladder; Lieut. Rogers, of the 4th, and J. P. Smith of the 5th infantry—both mortally wounded;—the 9th infantry, under Col. Ransom, who was killed while gallantly leading that gallant regiment; the 15th infantry under Lieut.-Col. Howard and Major Woods, with Captain Chase, whose company gallantry carried the redoubt, midway up the acclivity;—Col. Clarke's brigade (Worth's division), consisting of the 5th, 8th, and part of the 6th regiments of infantry, commanded, respectively, by Captain Chapman, Major Montgomery, and Lieut. Edward Johnstone—the latter specially noticed, with Lieuts. Longstreet (badly wounded—advancing—colors in hand) Pickett, and Merchant—the last three of the 8th infantry;—portions of the United States marines, New York, South Carolina, and 2d Pennsylvania volunteers, which, delayed with their division (Quitman's) by the hot engagement below, arrived just in time to participate in the assault of the heights—particularly a detachment, under Lieut. Reid, New York volunteers, consisting of a company of the same, with one of marines; and another detachment, a portion of the storming party (Twigg's division, serving with Quitman) under Lieut. Steele, 2d infantry—after the fall of Lieut. Gantt, 7th infantry.

In this connection, it is but just to recall the decisive effect of the heavy batteries, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4, commanded by those excellent officers, Captain Drum, 4th artillery, assisted by Lieuts. Benjamin and Porter of his own company; Captain Brooks and Lieut. Anderson, 2d artillery, assisted by Lieut. Russell, 4th infantry, a volunteer; Lieuts. Hagner and Stone, of the ordnance, and Lieut. Andrews, 3d artillery—the whole superintended by Captain Huger, chief of the ordnance with this army—an officer distinguished by every kind of merit. The mountain howitzer battery, under Lieut. Reno, of the ordnance, deserves, also, to be particularly mentioned. Attached to the *voltigeurs*, it followed the movements of that regiment, and again won applause.

In adding to the list of individuals of conspicuous merit, I must limit myself to a few of the many names which might be enumerated:—Captain Hooker, Assistant Adjutant-General, who won special applause, successively, in the staff off Pillow and Cadwalader; Lieut. Lovell, 4th artillery, (wounded,) chief of Quitman's staff; Capt. Page, Assistant Adjutant-General, (wounded,) and Lieut. Hammond, 3d artillery, both of Shields's staff, and Lieut. Van Dorn, (7th infantry,) aid-de-camp to Brigadier-General Smith.

Those operations all occurred on the west, southeast, and heights of Chapultepec. To the north, and at the base of the mound, inaccessible on that side, the 11th infantry, under Lieutenant Colonel Hebert, the 14th, under Colonel Trousdale, and Captain Magruder's field battery, 1st artillery—one section advanced under Lieutenant Jackson—all of Pillow's division—had, at the same time, some spirited affairs against superior numbers, driving the enemy from a battery in the road, and capturing a gun. In these, the officers and corps named, gained merited praise. Colonel Trousdale, the commander, though twice wounded, continued on duty until the heights were carried.

Early in the morning of the 13th, I repeated the orders of the night before to Major-General Worth, to be, with his division, at hand, to support the movement of Major-General Pillow from our left. The latter seems soon to have called for that entire division, standing momentarily in reserve, and Worth sent him Colonel Clarke's brigade. The call, if not unnecessary, was at least, from the circumstances, unknown to me at the time; for, soon observing that the very large body of the enemy, in the road in front of Major-General Quitman's right, was receiving reinforcements from the city—less than a mile and a half to the east—I sent instructions to Worth, on our opposite flank, to turn Chapultepec with his division, and to proceed, cautiously, by the road at its northern base, in order, if not met by very superior numbers, to threaten or to attack, in rear, that body of the enemy. The movement, it was also believed, could not fail to distract and to intimidate the enemy generally.

Worth promptly advanced with his remaining brigade—Colonel Garland's—Lieutenant-Colonel P. F. Smith's light battalion, Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan's field battery—all of his division—and three squadrons of dragoons, under Major Sumner, which I had just ordered up to join in the movement.

Having turned the forest on the west, and arriving opposite to the north centre of Chapultepec, Worth came up with the troops in the road, under Colonel Trousdale, and aided by a flank movement of a part of Garland's brigade in taking the one-gun breastwork, then under the fire of Lieutenant Jackson's section of Captain Magruder's field battery. Continuing to advance, this division passed Chapultepec, attacking the right of the enemy's line, resting on that road, about the moment of the general retreat consequent upon the capture of the formidable castle and its outworks.

Arriving some minutes later, and mounting to the top of the castle, the whole field, to the east, lay plainly under my view.

There are two routes from Chapultepec to the capital—the one on the right entering the same gate. Belen, with the road from the south, *via* Piedad; and

the other obliquing to the left, to intersect the great western, or San Cosme road, in a suburb outside of the gate of San Cosme.

Each of these routes (an elevated causeway) presents a double roadway on the sides of an aqueduct of strong masonry, and great height, resting on open arches and massive pillars, which, together, afford fine points both for attack and defence. The sideways of both aqueducts are, moreover, defended by many strong breastworks at the gates, and before reaching them. As we had expected, we found the four tracks unusually dry and solid for the season.

Worth and Quitman were prompt in pursuing the retreating enemy—the former by the San Cosme aqueduct, and the latter along that of Belén. Each had now advanced some hundred yards.

Deeming it all-important to profit by our successes, and the consequent dismay of the enemy, which could not be otherwise than general, I hastened to dispatch, from Chapultepec—first Clarke's brigade, and then Cadwalader's, to the support of Worth, and gave orders that the necessary heavy guns should follow. Pierce's brigade was, at the same time, sent to Quitman, and in the course of the afternoon, I caused some additional siege pieces to be added to his train. Then, after designating the 15th infantry, under Lieutenant-Colonel Howard—Morgan, the colonel, had been disabled by a wound at Churubusco—as the garrison of Chapultepec, and giving directions for the care of the prisoners of war, the captured ordnance and ordnance stores, I proceeded to join the advance of Worth, within the suburb, and beyond the turn at the junction of the aqueduct with the great highway from the west to the gate of San Cosme.

At this junction of roads, we first passed one of those formidable systems of city defences, spoken of above, and it had not a gun!—a strong proof—1. That the enemy had expected us to fail in the attack upon Chapultepec, even if we meant anything more than a feint; 2. That, in either case, we designed, in his belief, to return and double our forces against the southern gates, a delusion kept up by the active demonstrations of Twiggs and the forces posted on that side; and 3. That advancing rapidly from the reduction of Chapultepec, the enemy had not time to shift guns—our previous captures had left him, comparatively, but few—from the southern gates.

Within those dis-garnished works, I found our troops engaged in a street fight against the enemy posted in gardens, at windows and on house-tops—all flat, with parapets. Worth ordered forward the mountain howitzers of Cadwalader's brigade, preceded by skirmishers and pioneers, with pick-axes and crow-bars, to force windows and doors, or to burrow through walls. The assailants were soon in an equality of position fatal to the enemy. By 8 o'clock in the evening, Worth had carried two batteries in this suburb. According to my instructions, he here posted guards and sentinels, and placed his troops under shelter for the night. There was but one more obstacle—the San Cosme gate (custom-house), between him and the great square in front of the cathedral and palace—the heart of the city; and that barrier, it was known, could not, by daylight, resist our siege guns thirty minutes.

I had gone back to the foot of Chapultepec, the point from which the two aqueducts begin to diverge, some hours earlier, in order to be near that new depot, and in easy communication with Quitman and Twiggs as well as with Worth.

From this point I ordered all detachments and stragglers to their respective corps, then in advance; sent to Quitman additional siege guns, ammunition, entrenching tools; directed Twiggs's remaining brigade (Riley's) from Piedad, to support Worth, and Captain Steptoe's field battery, also at Piedad, to rejoin Quitman's division.

I had been, from the first, well aware that the western, or San Cosme, was the less difficult route to the centre and conquest of the capital; and, therefore, intended that Quitman should only manœuvre and threaten the Belén or south-

western gate, in order to favor the main attack by Worth—knowing that the strong defences at the Belén were directly under the guns of the much stronger fortress, called the *citadel*, just within. Both of these defences of the enemy were also within easy supporting distance from the San Angel (or *Nino Perdido*) and San Antonio gates. Hence the greater support, in numbers, given to Worth's movement as the *main* attack.

Those views I repeatedly, in the course of the day, communicated to Major-General Quitman; but being in hot pursuit—gallant himself, and ably supported by Brigadier-Generals Shields and Smith—Shields badly wounded before Chapultepec and refusing to retire—as well as by all the officers and men of the column—Quitman continued to press forward, under flank and direct fires;—carried an intermediate battery of two guns, and then the gate, before two o'clock in the afternoon, but not without proportionate loss, increased by his steady maintenance of that position.

Here, of the heavy battery—4th artillery—Captain Drum and Lieutenant Benjamin were mortally wounded, and Lieutenant Porter, its third in rank, slightly. The loss of those two most distinguished officers the army will long mourn. Lieutenants J. B. Moragne and William Canty, of the South Carolina volunteers, also of high merit, fell on the same occasion—besides many of our bravest non-commissioned officers and men—particularly in Captain Drum's veteran company. I cannot, in this place, give names or numbers; but full returns of the killed and wounded of all corps, in their recent operations, will accompany this report.

Quitman, within the city—adding several new defences to the position he had won, and sheltering his corps as well as practicable—now awaited the return of daylight under the guns of the formidable *citadel*, yet to be subdued.

At about 4 o'clock next morning, (September 14,) a deputation of the *ayuntamiento* (city council) waited upon me to report that the federal government and the army of Mexico had fled from the capital some three hours before, and to demand terms of capitulation in favor of the church, the citizens, and the municipal authorities. I promptly replied, that I would sign no capitulation; that the city had been virtually in our possession from the time of the lodgments effected by Worth and Quitman the day before; that I regretted the silent escape of the Mexican army; that I should levy upon the city a moderate contribution, for special purposes; and that the American army should come under no terms, not *self-imposed*—such only as its own honor, the dignity of the United States, and the spirit of the age, should, in my opinion, imperiously demand and impose.

For the terms, so imposed, I refer the department to subsequent general orders, Nos. 287 and 289, (paragraphs 7, 8, and 9, of the latter,) copies of which are herewith enclosed.

At the termination of the interview with the city deputation, I communicated, about daylight, orders to Worth and Quitman to advance slowly and cautiously (to guard against treachery) towards the heart of the city, and to occupy its stronger and more commanding points. Quitman proceeded to the great *plaza* or square, planted guards, and hoisted the colors of the United States on the national palace—containing the halls of Congress and executive apartments of federal Mexico. In this grateful service, Quitman might have been anticipated by Worth, but for my express orders, halting the latter at the head of the *Alameda*, (a green park,) within three squares of that goal of general ambition. The capital, however, was not taken by any one or two corps, but by the talent, the science, the gallantry, the prowess of this entire army. In the glorious conquest, *all* had contributed—early and powerfully—the killed, the wounded, and *the fit for duty*—at Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, San Antonio, Churubusco, (three battles,) the Molinos del Rey, and Chapultepec—as much as those who fought at the gates of Belén and San Cosme.

Soon after we had entered, and were in the act of occupying the city, a fire was opened upon us from the flat roofs of the houses, from windows and corners of streets, by some two thousand convicts liberated the night before by the flying government—joined by, perhaps, as many Mexican soldiers, who had disbanded themselves and thrown off their uniforms. This unlawful war lasted more than twenty-four hours, in spite of the exertions of the municipal authorities, and was not put down till we had lost many men, including several officers, killed or wounded, and had punished the miscreants. Their objects were, to gratify national hatred; and, in the general alarm and confusion, to plunder the wealthy inhabitants—particularly the deserted houses. But families are now generally returning; business of every kind has been resumed, and the city is already tranquil and cheerful, under the admirable conduct (with exceptions very few and trifling) of our gallant troops.

This army has been more disgusted than surprised that, by some sinister process on the part of certain individuals at home, its numbers have been, generally, almost trebled in our public papers—beginning at Washington.

Leaving, as we all feared, inadequate garrisons at Vera Cruz, Perote, and Puebla—with much larger hospitals; and being obliged, most reluctantly, from the same cause (general paucity of numbers) to abandon Jalapa, we marched [August 7–10] from Puebla with only 10,738 rank and file. This number includes the garrison of Jalapa, and the 2,429 men brought up by Brigadier-General Pierce, August 6.

At Contreras, Churnbusco, &c., [August 20,] we had but 8,497 men engaged—after deducting the garrison of San Augustin, (our general depot,) the intermediate sick and the dead; at the Molinos del Rey (September 8) but three brigades, with some cavalry and artillery—making in all 3,251 men—were in the battle; in the two days—September 12 and 13—our whole operating force, after deducting, again, the recent killed, wounded, and sick, together with the garrison of Mixcoac (the then general depot) and that of Tacubaya, was but 7,180; and, finally, after deducting the new garrison of Chapultepec, with the killed and wounded of the two days, we took possession (September 14) of this great capital with less than 6,000 men! And I reassert, upon accumulated and unquestionable evidence, that, in not one of those conflicts, was this army opposed by fewer than three and a half times its numbers—in several of them, by a yet greater excess.

I recapitulate our losses since we arrived in the basin of Mexico:

AUGUST 19, 20.—*Killed*, 137, including 14 officers. *Wounded*, 877, including 62 officers. *Missing*, (probably killed,) 38 rank and file. *Total*, 1,052.

SEPTEMBER 8.—*Killed*, 116, including 9 officers. *Wounded*, 665, including 49 officers. *Missing*, 18 rank and file. *Total*, 789.

SEPTEMBER 12, 13, 14.—*Killed*, 130, including 10 officers. *Wounded*, 703, including 68 officers. *Missing*, 29 rank and file. *Total*, 862.

Grand total of losses, 2,703, including 383 officers.

On the other hand, this small force has beaten on the same occasions, in view of their capital, the whole Mexican army, of (at the beginning) thirty odd thousand men—posted, always, in chosen positions, behind entrenchments, or more formidable defences of nature and art; killed or wounded, of that number, more than 7000 officers and men; taken 3,730 prisoners, one-seventh officers, including 13 generals, of whom 3 had been presidents of this republic; captured more than 20 colors and standards, 75 pieces of ordnance, besides 57 wall-pieces, 20,000 small arms, an immense quantity of shots, shells, powder, &c., &c.

Of that enemy, once so formidable in numbers, appointments, artillery, &c., twenty odd thousand men have disbanded themselves in despair, leaving, as is known, not more than three fragments—the largest about 2,500—now wandering in different directions, without magazines or a military chest, and living at free quarters upon their own people.

General Santa Anna, himself a fugitive, is believed to be on the point of resigning the chief magistracy, and escaping to neutral Guatemala. A new president, no doubt, will soon be declared, and the federal Congress is expected to re-assemble at Queretaro, 125 miles north of this, on the Zacatecas road, some time in October. I have seen and given safe conduct through this city to several of its members. The government will find itself without resources; no army, no arsenals, no magazines, and but little revenue, internal or external. Still such is the obstinacy, or rather infatuation, of this people, that it is very doubtful whether the new authorities will dare sue for peace on the terms which, in the recent negotiations, were made known by our minister.

* * * * *

In conclusion, I beg to enumerate, once more, with due commendation and thanks, the distinguished staff officers, general and personal, who, in our last operations in front of the enemy, accompanied me, and communicated orders to every point and through every danger. Lieutenant-Colonel Hitchcock, acting inspector-general; Major Turnbull and Lieutenant Hardcastle, topographical engineers; Major Kirby, chief paymaster; Captain Irwin, chief quartermaster; Captain Grayson, chief commissary; Captain H. L. Scott, chief in the adjutant-general's department; Lieutenant Williams, aid-de-camp; Lieutenant Lay, military secretary, and Major J. P. Gaines, Kentucky cavalry, volunteer aid-de-camp. Captain Lee, engineer, so constantly distinguished, also bore important orders from me (September 13) until he fainted from a wound and the loss of two nights' sleep at the batteries. Lieutenants Beauregard, Stevens, and Tower, all wounded, were employed with the divisions, and Lieutenants G. W. Smith and G. B. McClellan with the company of sappers and miners. Those five lieutenants of engineers, like their captain, won the admiration of all about them. The ordnance officers, Captain Huger, Lieutenants Hagner, Stone, and Reno, were highly effective, and distinguished at the several batteries; and I must add that Captain McKinstry, assistant quartermaster, at the close of the operations, executed several important commissions for me as a special volunteer.

Surgeon-General Lawson, and the medical staff generally, were skillful and untiring in and out of fire, in ministering to the numerous wounded.

To illustrate the operations in this basin, I inclose two beautiful drawings, prepared under the directions of Major Turnbull, mostly from actual survey.

I have the honor to be, sir, with high respect, your most obedient servant,
WINFIELD SCOTT.

The Hon. WM. L. MARCY,
Secretary of War.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
Mexico, September 14, 1847.

GENERAL ORDERS. No. 284.

1. Under the favor of God, the valor of this army, after many glorious victories, has hoisted the colors of our country in the capital of Mexico and on the palace of its government.
2. But the war is not ended. The Mexican army and government have fled, only to watch an opportunity to return upon us in vengeance. We must then be on our guard.
3. Companies and regiments will be kept together, and all stand on the alert. Our safety is in military discipline.
4. Let there be no drunkenness, no disorders and no straggling. Stragglers will be in great danger of assassination, and marauders shall be punished by courts martial.
5. All the rules so honorably observed by this glorious army, in Puebla, must be observed here. The honor of the army, and the honor of our country call for the best behavior on the part of all. The valiant must, to win the appro-

bation of God and their country, be sober, orderly and merciful. His noble brethren in arms will not be deaf to this hasty appeal from their commander and friend.

6. Major-General Quitman is appointed civil and military governor of Mexico. By command of Major-General Scott.

H. L. SCOTT,
A. A. A. General.

HEAD-QUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
National Palace of Mexico, September 16, 1847.

GENERAL ORDERS. No. 286.

The general-in-chief calls upon his brethren in arms to return, both in public and private worship, thanks and gratitude to God for the signal triumphs which they have recently achieved for their country.

Beginning with the 19th of August, and ending the 14th instant, this army has gallantly fought its way through the fields and forts of Contreras, San Antonio, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, Chapultepec, and the gates of San Cosme and Tacubaya, into the capital of Mexico.

When the very limited numbers who have performed those brilliant deeds shall have become known, the world will be astonished and our own countrymen filled with joy and admiration.

But all is not yet done. The enemy, though scattered and dismayed, has still many fragments of his late army hovering about us, and, aided by an exasperated population, he may again re-unite in treble our numbers, and fall upon us to advantage if we rest inactive on the security of past victories.

Compactness, vigilance and discipline are, therefore, our only securities. Let every good officer and man look to those cautions and enjoin them upon all others.

By command of Major-General Scott.

H. L. SCOTT,
A. A. A. General.

THE PRINCIPAL ACTS PASSED AT THE FIRST SESSION OF THE THIRTIETH CONGRESS.

BILLS WHICH ORIGINATED IN THE SENATE.

An act concerning certain collection districts, and for other purposes.

An act to amend an act entitled "An act for the regulation of seamen on board the public and private vessels of the United States," passed March 3d, 1813.

An act supplementary to the act entitled "An act to regulate the exercise of the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in certain cases, and for other purposes."

An act to provide for the purchase of the manuscript papers of the late James Madison, former President of the United States.

An act to provide clothing for volunteers in the service of the United States.

An act exempting vessels employed by the American Colonization Society in transporting colored emigrants from the United States to the coast of Africa, from the provisions of the acts of the 22d of February and the 2d of March, 1847, regulating the carriage of passengers in merchant vessels.

An act amending the act entitled "An act granting half-pay to widows or orphans, where their husbands and fathers have died of wounds received in the military service of the United States, in cases of deceased officers and soldiers of the militia and volunteers," passed July 4th, 1846.

An act supplemental to the act passed on the 9th day of July, in the year 1846, entitled "An act to retrocede the county of Alexandria, in the District of Columbia, to the State of Virginia."

An act to make attachments which are made under process issuing from the courts of the United States, conform to the laws regulating such attachments in the courts of the states.

An act in amendment of an act entitled "An act to amend the act entitled 'An act to reduce the rates of postage, to limit the use and correct the abuse of the franking privilege, and for the prevention of frauds on the revenues of the Post Office Department,'" passed the 3d of March, 1845.

An act to remit the duties on books, maps, and charts, imported for the use of the Library of Congress.

An act explanatory of the act entitled "An act to raise for a limited time, an additional military force, and for other purposes," approved February 11th, 1847.

An act to extend an act entitled "An act providing for the adjustment of all suspended pre-emption land claims in the several States and Territories," approved August 3, 1846.

An act for the payment of liquidated claims against Mexico.

An act to carry into effect certain provisions in the treaties between the United States and China and the Ottoman Porte, giving judicial powers to ministers and consuls of the United States in those countries.

An act concerning the pay department of the army.

An act giving effect to certain treaty stipulations between this and foreign governments, for the apprehension and delivery up of certain offenders.

An act making appropriations for light-houses, light-boats, buoys, &c., and providing for the erection and establishment of the same.

BILLS WHICH ORIGINATED IN THE HOUSE.

An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending 30th June, 1849.

An act in relation to military land warrants.

An act to establish the Territorial Government of Oregon.

An act making an appropriation to supply in part a deficiency in the appropriations for subsistence in kind of the army and volunteers during the year ending the 30th of June, 1848.

An act to authorize a loan not to exceed the sum of sixteen millions of dollars.

An act making appropriations for the support of the Military Academy for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849.

An act making appropriations for the payment of Revolutionary and other pensions of the United States, for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849.

An act to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the service of the fiscal year ending the 30th of June, 1848.

An act making appropriations for the current and contingent expenses of the Indian department, and for fulfilling treaty stipulations with the various Indian tribes for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849, and for other purposes.

An act making appropriations for certain fortifications of the United States for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849.

An act in explanation of an act entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of public lands, and to grant pre-emption rights."

An act to amend the act to provide for the transportation of the mail between the United States and foreign countries, and for other purposes.

An act to amend an act entitled "An act in amendment of the acts respecting the judicial system of the United States."

An act making appropriations for the naval service for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849.

An act making appropriations for the civil and diplomatic expenses of the government for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849, and for other purposes.

An act making appropriations for the service of the Post Office Department for the year ending the 30th of June, 1849.

An act to continue, alter, and amend the charter of the city of Washington.

An act to amend the act entitled "An act supplemental to an act, entitled 'An act providing for the prosecution of the existing war between the United States and the republic of Mexico,' and for other purposes."

An act to amend the act entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, and to grant pre-emption rights."

An act giving the consent of the government of the United States to the State of Texas to extend her eastern boundary so as to include within her limits one-half of Sabine pass, Sabine lake, and Sabine river, as far north as the 32d degree of north latitude.

An act to prevent the importation of adulterated and spurious drugs and medicines.

An act for the relief of certain surviving widows of officers and soldiers of the Revolutionary army.

JOINT RESOLUTIONS.

Joint resolutions expressive of the thanks of Congress to Major General Winfield Scott, and the troops under his command, for their distinguished gallantry and good conduct in the campaign of 1847.

Joint resolution of thanks to Major General Taylor.

Joint resolution of thanks to the officers, sailors, and marines of the United States navy.

Resolution tendering the congratulations of the Americans to the French people.

Resolution authorizing the presentation to the government of France of a series of the standard weights and measures of the United States, and for other purposes.

Resolution authorizing the proper accounting officers of the Treasury to make a just and fair settlement of the claims of the Cherokee nation of Indians, according to the principles established by the treaty of August, 1846.

Resolution for the speedy payment of the three months' extra pay to the officers, non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates who have served in the late war with Mexico, allowed by the act of July 19, 1848.

Resolution authorizing the erection, on the public grounds in the city of Washington, of a monument to George Washington.

ERRATA.

Page 159, line 16, for *Horace* read *Homer*.

" 253, " 20, " *country* read *county*.

" 436, " 11, " *Droitcorick* read *Droitwich*.

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